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ABSTRACT

This publication contains six selected papers from the 30th Anniversary Meeting of the University Council for Educational Administrators (UCEA) in the fall of 1987. The first article, by John A. Thompson discusses problems associated with implementing the agenda of the Holmes Group report in decentralizing the control of schools. Leslie, Snyder, and Giddis, in the second paper, discuss the changes in Florida's administrator preparation programs that delegate virtually all responsibility for training school principals to school districts. In the third study, Pohland, Milstein, Schilling, and Tonigan also take a state level perspective in discussing how the reform climate of the eighties has affected the preparation program at the University of New Mexico. They focus on the flaws inherent in the technical and corporate models of the educational administrator that are implied in the reform movement. Shapiro, in the fourth study, assesses and contrasts two curricular models: the medical model (oriented toward the clinical experience) and an alternative conceptual model that he labels the "artificial science" approach. The last two papers propose shifts in the curricular orientations of preparation programs. Colleen S. Bell argues that managerial instruction attempting to simplify and homogenize organizational experience ill-prepares students for the real life of administration, while Tetenbaum and Mulkeen review gender-based studies that focus on the difference in world view of men and women and differences in the way men and women approach administrative tasks. A bibiliography is included. (TE)

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NEW DIRECTIONS FOR ADMINISTRATOR PREPARATION

Edited by
Frederick C. Wendel and
Miles T. Bryant

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MONOGRAPH SERIES
UNIVERSITY COUNCIL FOR
EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATION

2

NEW DIRECTIONS FOR ADMINISTRATOR PREPARATION

UCEA MONOGRAPH SERIES

Edited by
Frederick C. Wendel
and
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FOREWORD

New Directions for Administrator Preparation is the fourth in a series of UCEA monographs addressing questions of importance to the profession of educational administration. This issue is particularly significant in that qualified authors discuss the critical question of reform in administrator preparation programs.

In addition to expressing gratitude to the authors for their significant contributions, UCEA's appreciation is also due the editors of the monograph series, Frederick C. Wendel and Miles T. Bryant (University of Nebraska-Lincoln) who have devoted a great deal of time to the preparation of the monographs for publication.

The work of UCEA is accomplished only through the spirited generosity of professors and administrators who are anxious to make a contribution to their profession. We are happy that UCEA can provide the vehicle for these contributions. We look forward to a collection of monographs of the highest quality and interest.

Patrick B. Forsyth
UCEA Executive Director

Tempe, AZ
October, 1988

INTRODUCTION

In the reform movement of the eighties, preparation programs for teachers and administrators have not escaped attention. As a way of responding to the call for a critical examination of preparation programs for educational administrators, the Thirtieth Anniversary Meeting of the University Council for Educational Administration held in the fall of 1987 provided a forum for papers and symposia on the topic: "The Teaching of Educational Administration: Mission, Methods, and Materials." This monograph contains papers presented at the UCEA meeting, selected because they provided useful conceptions of the purposes and/or content of programs in educational administration.

The Thompson article analyzes calls for restructuring education by focusing on the Holmes Group report and by discussing some of the problems associated with implementing the agenda of the Holmes Group relative to decentralizing the control of schools. Thompson concludes his analysis by identifying some of the monetary and logistical consequences associated with altering the present centralized structure of the schools.

Leslie, Snyder, and Giddis bring the impact of the reform movement into dramatic relief as they discuss the changes that have taken place in Florida's administrator preparation programs. The authors note that "the most radical reform in Florida is the delegation of virtually all responsibility for training and development of school principals to school districts." The consequences of this restructuring of preparation programs are discussed.

Pohland, Milstein, Schilling, and Tonigan also take a state level perspective in their discussion of how the reform climate of the eighties has affected the preparation program at The University of New Mexico. The paper covers the changes that have been necessary as a consequence of state determined administrator competencies. The authors delineate three concerns about the trends they see emerging from the reform of preparation programs in educational administration: 1) conceptual flaws in traditional approaches to pre-service and in-service that remain unaddressed; 2) the tendency to conceive of the educational administrator as the skilled technician; and 3) the growing tendency to build the character sketch of the educational administrator in language drawn from the world of corporate industry and the workplace.

Next, Shapiro assesses and contrasts two curricular models. He reviews proposed changes in the medical model of education as that profession attempts to lessen the tension between theory and practice. He warns that the unhealthy consequences of a medical model heavily oriented toward the clinical experience

should temper the expectations of professors of educational administration who urge the inclusion of lengthy clinical involvement in preparation programs. Shapiro uses what he labels the artificial science approach as a countering conceptual model where practice becomes "theory responsive" as opposed to theory based.

The last two papers propose shifts in the curricular orientations of preparation programs. Bell argues that managerial instruction attempting to "simplify" and "homogenize" organizational experience ill-prepares students for the real life of administration. Instead, Bell holds that the complex organizational environments confronting administrators require a purposive "complicating of understanding." Bell presents several examples of how student understanding of events can be rendered into a more complicated, and therefore richer and more reflective, understanding of organizational phenomena.

The last article in the monograph, by Tetenbaum and Mulkeen, provides a useful review of the gender based studies that have raised questions for professors of educational administration about the role of women in the profession. The authors focus on two themes: 1) the differences in the world view of men and women; and 2) differences in the way in which men and women approach administrative tasks. The implications of each of these themes for preparation programs is discussed.

Frederick C. Wendel, Co-Editor
Miles T. Bryant, Co-Editor

University of Nebraska-Lincoln
July 1988

Chapter
1

The Second Wave of Educational Reform: Implications for School Leadership, Administration, and Organization

John A. Thompson

OVERVIEW

A Nation Prepared: Teachers for the 21st Century may be the strongest hope for improving public schools of this country so that they may meet their future responsibilities. This report gives a bold outline for improving teachers' roles in the schools by greatly strengthening their decisionmaking role and advocating a much more decentralized school organization. Included are sections on what a decentralized, reorganized school will look like. The report does not, however, give many clues about how school districts might get from their current organizational structure to the future. Likewise, it says almost nothing about the administrative roles and/or structure that will be necessary to operate schools successfully.

As the Carnegie report becomes more widely read and accepted, attention will focus upon how its recommendations can be implemented. This paper will deal with the impact of the recommendations on administration of schools. It presents a discourse on several critical issues which will be necessary to consider as the Carnegie report becomes a workable model.

A major focus of this report is "empowering teachers" to have a greater decisionmaking role in schools. The concept of empowering teachers seems to imply that their new power must be taken from some other part of the educational establishment. This paper rejects that concept. Empowerment is not a zero-sum game. Rather, at least at the school level it will be a win-win situation. That is, empowering teachers will also expand and change the responsibilities of the principal.

While hopefully this paper will be of interest to school professionals, it is written for decision makers and policy makers who may not be overly familiar with the way schools are administered. Remember: Almost nothing is black and white in school administration; almost everything is various shades of gray.

Why is Restructuring Schools Important?

One of the most enduring themes in the rhetoric of educational reform is the need to restructure the way schools are organized to deliver education services to students. There are several rationales for changing the human and technical structures of the schools of the future.

One is that bright, young, new teachers will be attracted into the schools only if they perceive public education as having career opportunities that will be attractive over time. Thus, schools must provide both upward mobility and special incentives for teachers whose performance is superior. Since education will be bidding against other professions for the services of a decreasing number of college graduates, improved working conditions, salary, advancement, and the opportunity to participate in decisionmaking must be provided if public education is to compete successfully for the top college graduates.

A second rationale proceeds from modern management theory, which holds that concepts such as mutual assistance, cooperative work relationships, an opportunity to feel that one's efforts are contributing to the achievement of the goals of the organization, and participation in goal setting (at least in one's work area) are key elements of high productivity. Raising productivity, as the term applies to elementary and secondary educators, can be equated with better student achievement, which is *raison d'etre* for the entire reform movement. Therefore, a school organization that has the potential for raising productivity is certainly important to students, parents, and ultimately the economic health of the United States.

A third rationale for restructuring schools is to reduce bureaucracy, which the architects of the new schools believe has slowly strangled the ability of the individual attendance units to operate efficiently. For example, time, which is certainly one of the major resources of the teacher and the student, has been both manipulated and prescribed by the school district and, in some cases, by the state to a point that many teachers have almost no flexibility to control the amount of time spent on a particular subject in an effort to meet student needs. Statutes or regulations which, for instance, require "150 minutes per week of subject X," place teachers and principals in a situation where some students are going too slowly while others need more time. Bureaucracy, which is in part founded on the concept of standardizing operations, has

led to educational structures that make for easier administration but not always for better education from the teacher's point of view.

A fourth rationale deals with the locus of decisionmaking about financial matters. Modern business practice has placed high emphasis on quasi-independent "cost centers" where most budgeting and expending of funds occurs at the lowest operating division; these centers are then held responsible for gains in productivity in relation to the freedom they have to determine how to accomplish the work. But at present the principals and teachers do not typically have discretion over the bulk of their budget. Major expenditure items such as the number and type of teachers necessary to staff the school are often not under a principal's control, yet the principal is responsible for the productivity of the school. Thus, the ability of the teachers and/or principals to control educational outcomes may be severely hampered by not having sufficient control of expenditures at the school site (see Edmonds, 1979; Thomas & Edgemon, 1984). The Carnegie report envisions schools of the future that will have vastly expanded building-level control and expenditure authority.

Clearly these new and changing organizational aspects of the school of the future have a major effect upon the administrative subsystem of districts and schools, especially in such matters as selection, preparation, certification and development of the teaching staff, as well as the operational style that will contribute to the success of restructured schools.

A Vision of the School of the Future

One of the best descriptions of the restructured school of the future is found in the Carnegie report. The first paragraph from the section "Schools for the 21st Century: A Scenario" describes the setting:

> It is the year 2000. We are in a high school in a midwestern city serving children in a low income community. Most of the professional teaching staff have been Board certified. Many hold the Advanced Certificate issued by the Board. The professional teachers run the school with an Executive Committee of Lead Teachers in overall charge. There are many other people available to help the teachers, including paid teachers aides, technicians and clerical help; interns and residents working in the school as part of their professional teacher preparation programs; student tutors from the university, a few people on loan from nearby firms, and a retired person working as a volunteer tutor. (p. 45)

Paragraphs on p. 49 and 50-51 give a more detailed glimpse of the school of the future from an administrative point of view. The first paragraph is an interview with a mythical "head teacher" named Ms. Lopez "elected by her peers as head of the executive committee of the school."

> The conversation with the chair of the executive committee gets off to a fast start. A question about the goals of the school produces an animated monologue that lasts almost half an hour. Maria Lopez describes

> how the professional teachers in the schools met with the parents over six months to come to an understanding about what they wanted for their children, how they then discussed state and local standards and objectives, and then came up with a plan for their school.
>
> It was a tricky process. The teachers' plan had to address the state and local objectives for these students, and take into account what the parents wanted as well. But in the end, the objectives had to reflect what the teachers themselves thought they could and should accomplish for the students. If they set the objectives too low, they might be easily accomplished, but the teachers' bonuses would be commensurately low. Achievement of ambitious objectives would bring substantial rewards under their bonus plan, but none at all if they were not met. After long discussions with the district administrators, some objectives were set lower than the district had in mind, but others were set higher. Needless to say, the teachers were very interested in the year-end results that would be made public four weeks after the end of the spring term.

The plan included an incentive pay system based upon students' achievement of certain academic goals that had been negotiated with the district administrators, a restructuring of the school day to give teachers more time to plan; innovative methods of instruction, and a locally constructed curriculum (see pages 49-50). The scenario closes with a glimpse of where the school administrators would fit into the scheme.

> The meeting closes with a report from the school administrator hired by the teachers' executive committee last year. She has worked up a specification for specialized testing services, based on the technical information provided by the teachers with advanced training in psychometrics. The school district central office and the local office of a national firm have both submitted bids. After a short but heated debate, the teachers decide to award the contract to the school district, based on the great improvement in the district's technical staff and their ability to respond quickly to changing requirements.
>
> After the meeting, we get another few minutes with Maria Lopez. In response to our questions, she acknowledges that the professional teachers on her staff spend more time deciding how the school is to run than they used to. But, despite this, they have no less time to devote to instruction than before, because there are many more people around to take care of all the things which used to occupy teachers that had nothing to do with instruction. (pp. 50-51)

The scenario describes a much better trained instructional corps with teachers and building administrators in nearly complete control of developing school goals, instructional methodology, budget and working conditions. The authors of the report predict the net effect of the changes they postulate will be much higher productivity in terms of student outcomes.

While one might debate the feasibility of the Carnegie scenario, the fact remains that if all or part of it is implemented, there will be an impact on the current methods of administering schools. At the very least the model implies additional administra-

tive functions at the level of the individual school, with more persons sharing in many of the decisions.

Revising Current Administrative Practice

Assessing possible revisions of the current administrative practices of schools is not an easy task since the variance in the organization and operation of school attendance areas throughout the United States is enormous. For instance, there are schools and districts in which the Carnegie model or something similar to it is currently in operation (e.g., Cherry Creek, CO; Varina High School, VA; Westburg High, Houston, TX). On the other end of the continuum, there are many schools that are bureaucratic and rule-centered. The balance of public school attendance centers, if all could be evaluated, probably lies somewhere along the scale, with the majority tending to be more rule-centered than teacher-centered. This paper will attempt to make an analysis of the changes that will be necessary in the administration of schools that currently lie somewhat toward the rule-centered end of the continuum, with the explicit recognition that many schools or school systems may be closer to the vision of the Carnegie model.

To make the analysis more coherent, change will be categorized at three levels of education: schools, school districts, and the state. Several administrative task areas (i.e., management [organizational, motivational, personal], fiscal, legal, and curricular) will be analyzed at each level. A final section will discuss issues in the training of future school administrators.

Individuals interested in a discussion of reforms at "The School Level" and "The District Level" should contact the Education Commission of the States Distribution Center in Denver (303-830-3692) and ask for EG-86-1.

The State Level

If the administrative aspects of the Carnegie report are to be enacted, and without them the concept is probably doomed to failure, then revising the current statutes and regulations will be a necessity.

Management and Fiscal Considerations

To decentralize the administrative structure of public schools will cost money. This money will be independent of the costs necessary to bring teacher and administrator salaries into a competitive position or to create career ladders. The money must be spent on a variety of training costs for workshops, consultants, extra time in summer months for planning, and many other costs of reorganization. Many districts will be unable to fund the marginal costs of restructuring. If the new brand of schools is to become a reality, then state funds will likely be necessary.

The method of distributing funds to schools is worthy of attention. Since all districts will not be ready to implement the concepts described in the Carnegie report during the same school year, funding may have to take the form of project or grant

awards. In the initial stage, a state might elect to fund a group of experimental schools whose experience with the new system could be used to determine which models appear to have the greatest potential. Using experiments in this manner would also give researchers and legislators an opportunity to decide which statutes or regulations need revision in order to make the state ready for large-scale implementation.

The funding statute for experimental schools with parameters must be written to assure that schools of various size, location, and financial ability are included. The proposals should establish a contractual relationship between the school board and the state. The costs to develop the administrative portion of schools of the future would be one-time costs. Once the administrative aspects of decentralizing the schools had been changed, the district would fund the ongoing costs. (This should not, however, include funding for career ladder teachers, because of the time required for a district or the current state support system to absorb these additional costs.)

An additional concern legislators need to be aware of is equity among districts. Often the wealthiest school districts are most able to put resources into writing proposals for change, and they often can contribute the most district resources to the establishment of a new, less centralized system of schools. Thus, often these districts are most successful in receiving money for reform ideas. They are also the districts that may have the highest percentage of board-certified teachers. If the state pays a percentage of the additional costs for these high-cost teachers, the wealthy districts may be able to secure money that will enable them to contract more board-certified teachers, thus improving the instruction in their schools at the expense of districts that are poorer and less able to reward teacher excellence.

This situation presents a dilemma. States will have to pay the costs for changing current schools into schools of the future. In the process, the states may be promoting a lack of equity. Certainly states do not wish to retard the necessary changes by awarding every district the same amount of money (a flat grant system). On the other hand, states may not wish to promote inequity by an open proposal policy.

Perhaps weighing improvement funds by the ability of a district to fund its educational needs is the best solution. Awards might be made in an inverse ratio to district wealth. One strategy might be to give enough so that improvement is encouraged, while not allowing the "rich districts to get richer."

Legal Aspects

In the area of instruction, statutes or state regulations that require a certain number of hours or minutes of instruction per week or month or year in certain subjects may need to be revised. The subjects could stay, but the prescribed time would go.

Statewide textbook adoptions, which may limit the creativity of the teaching force, might have to be changed, although not necessarily eliminated.

As the Carnegie report stresses, the certification laws for teachers and administrators may have to be revised.

In several states statutes that prescribe accounting and expenditure procedures may have to be scrutinized to determine whether they conform to the intentions of decentralized financial decisionmaking.

The revision of statutes will be clearly affected by the reality that not all schools and districts will be ready to move into the mode described in the Carnegie report at the same time. Should statutes be revised to fit the schools of the future when there may still be a number of schools of the present? Or should a different mechanism be used to assist schools that are forging ahead? One possibility would be to grant waivers that would aid schools to achieve the more professionalized status envisioned in the report. A statute that would empower the state department to grant such waivers upon application, review, and approval may be a viable alternative.

Curriculum

The state education agency must take the lead in developing rational goals or outcomes for districts. In that sense it will be producing a mission statement to guide the educational destiny of the state.

Statutory enactments that prescribe instruction in particular parts of the curriculum, i.e., "one hour of instruction per year on the history and meaning of Arbor Day," will have to be reviewed to determine their relevance in an era of a new and vastly different educational system.

Also, the legislature will have to review laws and regulations on matters such as accounting procedures, budgets and contracts, teacher and administrator certification, subject area requirements for students, the school year, and governance of schools. The report makes clear the concept that a professionalized teaching force will not flourish in an overly regulated educational environment.

In summary, the role of the state legislature and of the department of public instruction will grow as the Carnegie model is implemented. Appropriating money to facilitate the changes discussed in this paper, as well as others not described, will be necessary. Perhaps even more important will be to develop a funding mechanism that promotes equity.

Training of Administrators

If the educational enterprise is decentralized, the result will be more, not less, administration. Functions that are currently centralized will be spread over a larger number of people.

> *School Leadership and the Role of the Principal.* No organization can function well without strong and effective leadership and schools are no exception.... The model of a non-teaching principal as head of the school can work in support of the collegial style of schooling we propose, but there are many other models that should be tried. Among them are schools headed by the Lead Teachers acting as a committee, one of whom acts like a managing partner in a professional partnership. In such schools, the teachers might hire the administrators, rather than the other way around. (p. 61)

> It would be far more efficient to establish most school district instructional and other services as "cost centers" which have to sell their services to the schools in order to survive. Put another way, most of the budget for school

> district instructional services should be allocated to the school level, and the principal and teachers together decide what services to buy and where. (p. 61)

More people will be involved in decisions about the curriculum, discipline and personnel selection, budgeting and expenditures, to name a few. Thus, decision makers will have to determine who will require training, as well as what kind of training is needed. This section of the paper will look at some of the concerns that may arise in the area of administrative training.

There appears to be a blurring of distinction between selection and training of administrators in the reform literature. The research being carried out by the National Association of Secondary School Principals and to a lesser extent by states like South Carolina seems to indicate that certain attributes, which can be identified and in some cases honed, are related to success in the administrative role. This is welcome news, but is the need for training any less? Given the realities of decentralization, there will probably be a need for additional training, not less. The Carnegie report argues that simply graduating a prospective teacher with a strong liberal education does not obviate the need for pedagogical training. The same argument may be advanced about training administrators.

It is probably possible to learn how to administer schools by experience alone. However, most people do not perceive that method to be the most effective. Thus, while clinical experience is a vital part of an administrative training program, it should not be interpreted as the training program. Likewise, while bringing in successful industrialists to speak on certain aspects of their expertise can be part of training, it has limitations. For example, an expert in the field of motivation may have almost nothing to say about legal aspects of school administration.

Another point is to recognize that there are two distinct types of training for administrators (as there are for teachers): pre-service and in-service. These two vary considerably in terms of scope, timing, lag time between the training and possible application, and the site-specificity.

Pre-Service Training

Pre-service training ideally should begin with a selection procedure such as the NASSP Assessment Center's, to winnow out people who do not appear to have the skills to be an administrator. A second step would be to have candidates enrolled in some type of regional training center. University faculties have traditionally conducted this phase of training and probably should continue to do so, with appropriate changes in the curriculum, methods of instruction and, in some cases, the time of the training.

Research seems to indicate that studying pedagogy concurrently with experiences in a field setting (the classroom) produces greater receptivity and better understanding. Undoubtedly, the same would be true in the pre-service training of administrators. Since a large majority of those aspiring to become administrators have been practicing teachers, it has not been feasible to have them leave the classroom to spend time in administration. However, in the school of the future,

people who aspire to be administrators could probably spend part of their day in pre-service training.

This partial experience should not be confused with internships, which should follow the training and be a full-time experience. Several states require an internship as part of the licensing procedure for teachers, and it should certainly be a phase of administrator training. There are problems connected with these internships. If an intern experience is to be fruitful, it should be conducted by a mentor with demonstrated leadership qualities. A board made up of practitioners and professionals should identify prospective placements.

Many interns will not be able to carry out their internships in their own community. Therefore, decision makers interested in better schools will have to consider techniques to partly or fully fund internships. The costs will be different from the costs referred to in the Carnegie report of funding internships for prospective teachers. The total cost for all teacher interns in a given year will be much larger, but the per-intern amount will be higher for administrator interns. (The reason is that interning administrators are practicing teachers with families and other financial responsibilities.) These internships will have, in economic terms, both public and private benefits. The proportion that these benefits assume should be the basis for the award of money to the intern. Also, awards should be made based on whether the intern will be sent to another district or remains at home. To ask a school district to assume these costs presents several problems. First, many of the interns will not be hired by the district. Second, wealthier districts will be able to fund interns more easily than poor districts.

Since high quality in the leadership of schools is a statewide concern, the state should take an active interest in a funding arrangement for interns. The alternatives for funding with any number of continuations appear reasonable. Since private industry, almost by definition, must be interested in administration, industry might establish an intern fund administered by the state. There are advantages to this alternative because a variety of enterprises can contribute. Currently, many school-business partnerships occur within a school district, that is, if an industry located in a particular city will work with that school district. Such arrangements may promote inequality, because some districts have no industries. A fund idea such as this is manageable because the scope is relatively small but the potential payoff is good. Also, a state may allocate money from its general funds for an intern payment plan. This has the advantage of equity, but it might be subject to reduction in difficult budgetary years. Finally, a charitable institution may wish to undertake such a venture.

Criticism of the pre-service training of administrators is generally of two types. One is that some coursework does not apply to the principalship. Another is that instructional methodology occasionally seems uni-dimensional. Both of these problems must be corrected if pre-service training of administrators is to contribute to the schools of the future.

In terms of management, training must be designed to maximize its impact on those who will be the leaders of the schools of the future. In the area of organizational management, one thing seems clear—there will be a number of different ways to

organize schools. The rather monolithic model currently in place will not be satisfactory for the end of the 20th century. The dynamics of restructuring the organization of a school to a faculty team, a non-graded approach, or a school based upon a certain learning style will require both research and training. Training in this aspect of administration (whether it is for a principal or an executive group of teachers or both) may well look at discrepancies or dysfunctions in such matters as time on task, formal linkages with other organizations, and relationships between the professional and certified positions of the staff. Knowing how to transform instructional goals into efficient organizational structure will be necessary to the administration of the future.

Pre-service training in financial matters will have to be geared to the school level. Studies of the micro-models of resource allocation (such as time on task studies) and training in financial analysis techniques (such as cost utility, cost benefit, trend analysis, and input/output studies) will be essential if the school becomes output—rather than process—oriented.

In the area of personnel, a heavy emphasis on collegial management models will serve prospective administrators well. Developing skills in classroom observation will also be very useful.

Perhaps one of the most important training needs will be in the area of output evaluation. Introduction to the design of evaluation studies, interpretation of research data, techniques of carrying out such studies, and sampling theory will assume a major importance in an output-oriented school. Traditional statistics courses probably will not be suited for the tasks that principals will be required to do, but new courses that tie the use of data to a system of analysis that has relevance to school level administrators will have great value.

State decision makers will have to require universities to evaluate their policies on residence credit so that professors can carry on training courses in regional centers. This will allow prospective and practicing administrators to take courses while they are carrying out their teacher/administrative duties.

In-Service Training

While much of the pre-service education of administrators may occur in universities and colleges, the retraining of administrators currently in service may require different techniques and organization. The traditional 18-week semester favored by universities or even the 6- or 8-week summer sessions may not be an appropriate vehicle for the delivery of this important training or retraining.

On the other hand, there is increasing evidence that the one- or two-day workshop that has been the mainstay of staff development activities in public school does little, if anything, to effect lasting change. An organizational structure that delivers training to practicing administrators will have to be developed with a time frame somewhere between a university course and a workshop. Two promising models are the academies operated by the National Association of Secondary School Principals and the California School Administrators.

In any case, there will be costs to be borne by the state for the establishment and operation of these in-service academies. The other alternative is to require school

administrators to pay for their own training. This would likely result in a disjointed set of workshops that do not produce the required results. While the costs to operate these retraining centers (which could be done by universities, if they can bring themselves to reorganize delivery services, by private corporations, or by the Regional Labs sponsored in part by the National Institute for Education) will not be large in relation to the total for implementing the Carnegie model(s), but they will be vital to the success of the new professionalized educational system.

If the schools of the future as they are envisioned in the Carnegie report are to become a reality, then the need for competent well-trained and motivated administrators will be a prime necessity. If administration, either singly or in groups, is to be of high quality, then selection of talented individuals should be encouraged through adoption of appropriate selection procedures. Methods to assist individuals financially to receive pre-service training will also need to be considered. If prospective administrators are to be completely trained, then pre-service training methods should include university study and internships with outstanding practitioners. If practicing administrators are to be retrained, then new models such as principal academies should be designed and implemented. If these training methodologies are to become reality, then state legislatures will be the most likely source of funding and they must build in such costs to their planning efforts. Failure to provide adequate funding of this small but vital part of the school improvement model may very well jeopardize the entire enterprise.

Policy Implications

No effort has been made in this paper to repeat the policy implications that were written into the Carnegie study. Many of those implications have clear and important ramifications for the future administration of public schools. For instance, the establishment of a National Professional Standards Board will undoubtedly have a significant effect upon school level administration. The principal will become involved in the observations of prospective Board teachers as well as the recommendation on various aspects of professional practice.

The implications that follow concern such matters as legislating decentralization, the need for changes in certification, and the need to carefully consider not only the level of funding necessary but the regulation of the flow of money to achieve maximum results:

1. Decentralizing various functions of the teaching and learning process will not lead to a reduction in the need for administration of the schools. It will instead require more administration, since many of the functions (curricular, financial and personnel) that have become centralized will return to the schools.

   The policy options that consider the state role in the training and retraining of a very large number of administrators, i.e., existing and prospective principals as well as lead teachers who will be assuming

administrative functions in schools that adopt certain of the models in the Carnegie report, will need to be examined. The ability of many districts to fund such training is limited. State resources to assist in defraying the costs must be considered.

2. Legislating the decentralization of functions such as governance, scope and sequence of the curriculum, and budget and expenditure will be a formidable task. However, leaving it in the hands of boards of education is even a greater problem for several reasons:

   (a) There is an administrative structure in place that reflects a philosophy of centralizing certain functions, for better accountability or to save money. While it may be relatively easy conceptually to see how a more open system might accommodate teachers' needs for professionalism, the complexities of actual change may be more than boards are willing to undertake. For example, placing the responsibility for employing personnel in the hands of the teachers may seem like a fine idea, but for a board to generate the effort necessary to change current regulations, lobby for changes in state statutes, have each school develop preference lists, train many school level administrators and teachers about equal employment regulations, and monitor compliance may be overwhelming. If one multiplies this list by several other lists of particulars necessary to change: purchases, budgets, district boundaries of individual schools, and many other tasks, many boards may wish to change but lack the energy. Intense and sustained motivation by educational leaders in a state will be a key ingredient for success.

   (b) Many schools districts do not have the funds necessary to change to a decentralized system. The argument advanced in the Carnegie report that much of the cost could be underwritten by the elimination of central level administrators is specious. The centralization of many administrative functions was initiated to conserve resources. Decentralizing them will require additional funding, not less. If asked to accomplish this within their current financial structure, a large majority of districts will simply be unable to do so.

   (c) Over a long term, the costs-to-benefits ratio will be positive; unfortunately, boards of education are often required by statute or practice to work with very short budget cycles, which tend to promote quick fixes rather than long term benefits.

   (d) Currently there are relatively few models of the process that a district might use to produce schools with the characteristics described in the Carnegie report. Designs that have promise need to be developed and

tested. School boards must have the choice among several possibilities to avoid a new monolithic model for schools which will replace the old monolithic system. The suggestion in this paper is that the state rather than the district will have to provide the risk capital necessary to design, plan, and implement several models. Each state will have its own needs, but models for large and small schools and for urban, suburban, and rural schools may be among those needed.

3. The drive toward equalizing educational opportunity among districts has created tendencies toward single rather than duplicate outcomes in matters which run the gamut from graduation requirements to equalizing district tax effort and expenditure. Retaining these worthwhile goals, which clearly tends toward centralization, while decentralizing many other educational functions, will require skill on the part of legislators. One theme that runs through this entire paper is the complexity of preserving diversity in organization, financing, employment, and curriculum while attempting to assure some standardization of educational outcomes. Legislating change may not be as effective as motivating it.

4. State certification standards for both teachers and school administrators will have to be revised. The Carnegie report makes many suggestions on this matter for teachers, which do not bear repeating in this paper. In the schools of the future, administrator credentials may be a misnomer. If a school has many persons with various degrees of administrative responsibility, as the Carnegie report suggests, then who should be credentialed? Perhaps no one. Instead training in and knowledge of administrative tasks may be part of the requirement to become a board-certified teacher. Thus, the national certifying board may replace the traditional state credential.

5. Since not all districts will be ready (and even willing) to change the structure and functions of their districts simultaneously, a method of funding to facilitate the change at a time when districts are ready will have to be devised. If this is not done, much of the money may be wasted.

6. Relieving schools that are moving toward implementation of one of the Carnegie models (see pages 87-94 of the Carnegie report) from state regulations or statutes which may restrict their implementation efforts will be a policy consideration at the state level. Since some schools will not move as rapidly as others, the current statutes may be necessary for some years to come. The suggestion made in this paper is to create a waiver system for schools that need relief from statutes and regulation to achieve their goals. Safeguards such as applications which spell out specifics of a school's plan, observation by a supervisory body, and subsequent reapplication will need to be part of such a waiver plan.

7. The reconciliation of measuring outcomes by some standard or partly by standardized measure while encouraging diversity in local educational inputs will require great care at either the legislative or department of public instruction level. The Council of Chief State School Officers is beginning to address that question with its "Indicators of Excellence" program.

8. Programs for both pre-service and in-service training of administrators will have to be both enlarged and changed. Distinctions between selection, pre-service training, appointment to positions and in-service training (and retraining) need to be made more clear. Innovative programs such as the National Association of Secondary School Principal's selection program, the University Council for Educational Administrations' study on training, South Carolina's effort to match skills to educational positions, and the California Career Academies may provide decisionmakers with guidelines in this area.

Conclusion

The purpose of this paper has been to alert policy makers to some of the implications for administration of public schools that are implicit in the Carnegie report. Many administrators and school board members are asking what their role will be in the schools of the future. There are suggestions for a new and expanded role for building administrators in this paper. These new responsibilities will require new role definitions, different relationships, and increased, though shared, authority.

Many new models for operating schools to enhance the achievement of students will have to be created. Costs to implement the models throughout the schools of a state will be substantial. But so will gains for students.

Sustaining the current momentum for change will present a challenge for policy makers. The final question is how it will be done and by whom. The future of public education may lie in how that question is answered.

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Chapter
2

Can Graduate Programs Support Competency-Based Administrator Preparation?

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The preparation of leaders for American schools is under vigorous challenge. Much as the quality of schools and teachers has been the subject of a virtual explosion of national and state reports, so now attention is turned to leadership. If schools are to be better and if teachers are to be more effective, then that leadership must exemplify the conditions of excellence under which educational improvement is stimulated.

Implicit in all of the current reports is strong criticism of the ways and means by which university departments of educational leadership or administration prepare school leaders. Peterson and Finn (1985), writing in The Public Interest, have gone to the heart of the issue:

> It may well be that piecemeal reform is simply inadequate to the task of overhauling the training . . . of school administrators . . . . Maybe one state needs to burst from the pack with a radically different model of training, licensure, selection, evaluation, and recruitment into this field. (p. 62)

We think Finn and Peterson would agree that Florida is that state. We further think that reforms of the past several years in Florida have been little noticed by the profession at large. Our purpose is to outline these reforms and to discuss some of the challenges and adaptations they imply for university-based programs.

The overriding theme of current reports on the preparation of school leaders emphasizes competency-based training. OERI's Principal Selection Guide (1987) emphasizes competency-based selection, and district-based training. SREB's report, Effective School Principals (1986), emphasizes district-based identification, selection, and training with focus on skills and knowledge required by effective principals. Leaders for America's Schools (National Commission on Excellence in Educational Administration, 1987) is far more restrained in its call for reform in university-based programs, but it does suggest expanding the clinical content. It is alone in failing to anticipate a greatly expanded role for schools districts in administrator selection and training although it calls for "joint responsibility" with "the profession" (p. 20).

On the other hand, Leaders . . . does call for elimination of well over half—perhaps 60 percent—of existing university programs on the basis of their inadequate resources (p. 23). This theme is echoed in commission member Governor Bill Clinton's (1987) short ECS report, Speaking of Leadership. Remarkable in all of this rhetoric is a lack of specificity about precisely what programs should be eliminated. As we have grappled with the hard realities of Florida's reforms, our future lies in competency-based professional preparation that supports mandated district selection and training programs. We do not believe there will be wholesale elimination of university programs in educational leadership, but we believe there may be extraordinary retrenchment of doctoral programs and that new market forces in district demands on the master's and specialist programs will generate important reforms.

Our message to the profession is that universities are no longer in the driver's seat in Florida. Preparation of administrators is the responsibility of school districts and the state-operated Florida Academy of School Leaders. Our challenge is not to expand our domain, but to refocus our attention on a new clientele—the school districts of the state—and the needs of their management training and development programs. In this paper, we will outline historical developments that make Florida a break-away state in educational leadership, review program adaptations at Florida State University, and outline challenges we believe will be faced by universities in coming to grips with the current wave of reform in the identification, selection, training and development of the next generation of school leaders.

Historical developments. The Florida Legislature passed the Management Training Act in 1980. This action was a response to a long-standing concern about the effectiveness of management in Florida's public schools (Drummond & Snyder, 1984). The Management Training Act established a policy-making body called the Florida Council on Educational Management (FCEM). The FCEM was charged to focus on the principalship by:

1. Identifying the competencies of principals considered to be "high-performing," or those whose schools performed above expectation relative to the basic socio-economic conditions of the school's environment.

2. Developing a new competency-based process for certifying school principals.

3. Formulating guidelines and procedures for implementing objective recruitment, screening, and selection of school administrators.

4. Developing performance-based appraisal systems for school administrators.

5. Setting expectations and standards for training and development programs for school administrators.

6. Developing a system of performance-based compensation for school administrators.

In addition, the FCEM was designated as the board of directors of the Florida Academy of School Leaders (FASL). FASL had earlier been established as the training arm of the Department of Education for school and district administrators (Florida Statutes).

The FCEM was given a broad mandate and a broadly based membership. Seventeen members were to be appointed by the Governor, the Speaker of the House of Representatives, and the President of the Senate. The Chairman of the FCEM is the current Deputy Commissioner of Education for Educational Planning, Budgeting, and Management, whose office provides staff support for both FCEM and FASL. The seventeen current members of the Council include a majority of school principals, one faculty member each from a public and a private university department of educational leadership, one professor of business administration, one elected and one appointed school district superintendent, a school board member, a district staff training and development director, representatives of the private business sector, and a representative of the state Department of Education.

The Council has moved persistently and effectively to carry out its legislative mandate. Each of its charges has been purposefully and systematically addressed. The overriding result has been substantial impact on management development at the district, regional, and state level. In addition, the impact is being felt with particular strength among universities with programs of pre-service and in-service preparation of school administrators.

In its early work, the FCEM sponsored three major research studies to define the competencies of high-performing principals. One field study, based on interviews with both high- and moderate-performing principals, was conducted by the McBer Corporation of Massachusetts. This study compared the perceptions of these two groups regarding the effectiveness of their past behaviors as principals. A second study compared actual on-the-job behaviors of the same two groups of principals by on-site shadowing (Martinko & Gardner, 1984). Finally, a third study combined the results of the first two and placed the results in the context of current and classical literature on management competence. This final study resulted in the identification and definition of nineteen principals' competencies. These nineteen, now called the Florida Principal Competencies (FPCs), were dichotomized. Some are understood to be basic to effective behavior in both moderate and high-performing principals;

others distinguish high-performing principals from moderately performing principals. This study also grouped competencies into six clusters: purpose and direction, cognitive skills, consensus management, quality enhancement, organizations, and communication (Croghan, Lake & Schroeder, 1983).

The FPCs are now serving as a basis for defining the goals of school districts' management training and development programs and will further impact the direction of university programs as well. These competencies will underlie objective selection, performance appraisal, and performance-based compensation systems for school principals. They will also guide the implementation of new performance-based certification standards.

The FCEM's second-phase work included establishment of a competency-based certification program for principals. It is a three-level program. Level I, the Educational Leadership Certificate, requires mastery of a knowledge base. A master's degree from a university with an approved program in educational administration and a passing grade on a knowledge-based examination are required. The examination is given to candidates for certification at Level I, and is the product of work by the Florida Association of Professors of Educational Administration. Norming and other technical work on the examination are in process at this date.

Level II certification is explicitly performance based and is called the Principal's Certificate. It requires that the candidate complete an individualized management training program. Each school district is required to have such a state-approved program operating in order for its principal candidates to achieve certification. Level II certification requires that the candidate serve an internship for a full year under the direction of an outstanding practicing principal. During that year, the candidate must demonstrate and document the performance of the Florida Principal Competencies and complete other elements of the district's approved training program.

Level II does not require any university course work or progress toward a degree. Theoretically, a person could complete a master's degree in music, continue by completing an approved program (sequence of courses and experiences, but not necessarily a degree) in educational administration, pass the Florida Educational Leadership Examination (FELE), and be selected by the school district for its approved management training program. From that point, further development and advancement toward the principalship (or district level administration) is entirely in the hands of the district—with no defined role for university-based programs whatsoever.

The final level of certification is Level III, the Professional Principal's Certificate. It requires that a principal already certified at Level II demonstrate and document behavior that makes a positive difference in school effectiveness. The school site characteristics and qualities of effective schools are utilized in judging performance. The third level of certification is not required of school principals, but the Council has taken a position that achievement of Level III should be tied to compensation.

The Council has established guidelines for and has completed a full cycle of approval for district management training programs. Districts must establish a detailed Human Resources Management and Development (HRMD) plan under

existing law. Each HRMD plan must include three main streams of activity: objective recruitment, screening, and selection of principal candidates and principals (FCEM, 1984); performance appraisal for all principal interns and principals (FCEM, 1985); and training and development for new and on-line principals (FCEM, 1985).

Each district's HRMD plan is reviewed by a team of practitioners who make a site visit prior to recommending provisional, conditional, or full approval for the plan. Each district's plan must receive approval before any candidate from that district may be recommended to the state for certification. Many districts receive recommendations for technical assistance and improvement after the site visits. Although university professors have been included in some of the site visit teams, the HRMD approval process is almost entirely in the hands of district personnel, including superintendents, district management training specialists, and practicing principals, who have been heavily represented.

To support districts in the development and implementation of sound programs for management training, the FCEM has established regional networks—or consortia—throughout the state. These networks encourage districts to combine resources and to share expertise, and receive grants from the Council to carry out their work of bringing training and development expertise to districts. In addition, the FCEM has implemented a system of peer-reviewed grants to districts to support introduction and development of effective management training programs. After achieving a level of effectiveness and stability, district HRMD programs are eligible to receive FTE funding from the state.

With the introduction of new competency-based certification rules for principals, and with the assumption of responsibility for Level II and Level III certification by school districts, state approval of all existing university programs was discontinued; no existing program in Florida has such approval. The FCEM is currently developing guidelines for program approval under the supervision of an oversight committee chaired by an elected school superintendent. The committee's membership includes university faculty, school principals, and management training specialists.

Although the committee's work remains at the organizational stage, standards will likely require changes in existing master's programs. Each program will have to show that it adequately covers FELE content domains, including finance, law, leadership, management, curriculum, personnel, communications, and technology. Each program will almost certainly have to show that it incorporates an effective clinical experience component. And each program will probably have to show that some effective level of collaboration exists with school districts in planning, implementing, and evaluating its program.

The approval process will rely heavily on the participation of school district personnel. Each graduate program will be visited by a team appointed by the Council. The team may include school principals, district-level management training personnel, superintendents, and university faculty. It will have authority to issue conditional, provisional, and full approval with recommendations for change, development, and technical assistance. The committee's work is in the early stages, and these projections are estimates based on experience and judgments about policy discussions at the Council level, the staff level, and in the committee's own discussions.

University programs in educational administration are being challenged to adapt to a new and powerful system for educational management development in Florida. That system will require us to move into real, effective, and productive partnerships with school districts and with the FCEM if we are to have any significant impact on the directions leadership preparation is going to take. We anticipate that our programs will no longer be driven by top-heavy enrollment at the doctoral level. We anticipate that significant change in our master's program must be accomplished almost immediately if we are to receive program approval under new standards as yet unformed. And we anticipate that our clientele will become the school districts throughout the state that need support and assistance in operating a sophisticated management development program for principal candidates at Level II.

All of these shifting parameters will require that we focus on the realities of high-performing principal competencies, on the realities of district needs for management training support, and on the need for careful re-design of field-based, practical programs. Principals in Florida will—by law and by regulation—be high-performing mangers selected, trained, and promoted by their districts irrespective of whether universities care to contribute to this process. We are now beginning to understand that we can partipate in the leadership of change, or we can be left behind with irrelevant and sterile programs that occupy no meaningful market niche in our state.

The FSU pilot program. Florida State University has begun to experiment with an approach to this challenge. The faculty in educational administration began informal discussion of changes in its graduate program in 1986. The emergence and approval of district HRMD plans for competency-based Level II certification required shifting one or more of our programs into this mode. The master's degree, however, was understood to be a preparation for Level I certification, which is the knowledge-based, entry level requiring successful performance on a written examination. The doctorate, on the other hand, was, and by consensus should remain, a research degree (whether applied in the case of the EdD or basic in the case of the PhD). Accordingly, we focused our attention on a major re-design of the Educational Specialist degree, a historically amorphous "middle ground" between the entry level and research degree, and one that we have used only sporadically for individuals with particular (often non-traditional) objectives.

We are presently offering the EdS as an experimental program at our Panama City campus, where Level II candidates from surrounding school districts are supervised and supported by FSU faculty members. The program requires joint agreement between the participating school districts and the university for each candidate's admission, and it requires cooperation in program design and delivery to accommodate the individual development needs of students and the specified needs of each district for principals with site-specific skills.

Our analysis of the new management training climate in Florida suggested that we would have to include three major components in this degree: knowledge and theory, skill development, and application/performance. Each of these components is included to some extent in the district HRMD plan, with heavier weight placed on the skill development and performance dimensions than has ever been true of university programs. In our initial program design, therefore, we took into account

that existing courses would cover essential knowledge and theory bases in educational leadership. Our focus was on the design and implementation of program elements that would provide for skill and performance development. We also understood that the program would function best if it were coordinated with school district management training requirements.

In the traditional, course-based part of our program, we have included Organizational Theory, Staff Training and Development, and Effective Schools/School Improvement; the latter still in the topical seminar stage of development. Each course has been slightly modified for our EdS cohort by including required completion of mini-projects in which students apply knowledge to real situations in school settings.

Skill development for Level II candidates is largely the responsibility of the state's regional management development networks. The FCEM has purchased rights to many high-quality programs and the rights to train trainers for program delivery. Among those selected for development of high-performing principals are programs such as "Targeted Selection," "Interaction Management," and "Job Analysis." Among other programs implemented in Florida Management Development Networks are the NASSP Assessment Center and SRI Administrator Perceiver programs. FSU faculty have undergone training in most of these programs, and are certified to deliver them. We have also developed short training programs in educational futures, decision-oriented research, comprehensive planning, mastery teaching, and others.

Once an inventory of valid skill development programs was available, we designed a program component of modularized experiences and credit around the prevailing needs of predominantly rural districts in the Panhandle Management Development Network. Key to understanding this program component is the reality that each principal candidate pursues an individualized development plan based on objectively assessed needs. Accordingly, we assumed that each individual would pursue a program that supported a district-specified development plan, and that district-specified needs for principal competencies in carefully assessed school sites would be taken into account in our programming. The current cohort of EdS students is pursuing this carefully monitored set of development experiences.

This phase of the program raises obvious questions in the academic setting. The core issue is how academic credit can be given in some appropriate way for what amounts to clinical skill development. We are using a variety of variable credit course designations at present, and will ultimately provide a "supervised clinical experience" course designation. Other professions are accustomed to this process, and we are confident that careful rationalization, close supervision of students and their experiences, and continued validation of the effort will legitimize this program component.

The third phase of our program also tracks closely with district management development programs. Level II certification requires completion of a year-long supervised internship. Small, rural school districts, predominant in northwest Florida, find it very difficult and prohibitively costly to release principal candidates for a full year. These districts are marginally funded and staffed, and often their most effective teachers and administrators carry multiple responsibilities.

In designing the experimental specialist program, we have tried to accommodate the needs of districts to keep people on the job, yet to complete supervised experience in critical performance areas. Accordingly, each EdS candidate is assigned a series of "supervised research" projects modularized by requirements of individual management development plans and by credit award. What would be a set of internship experiences is designed by joint agreement of the school district and FSU faculty. Each experience is a field-based action project with concrete potential to improve programs and practices in the district. Supervision is provided by FSU faculty and by appropriate district personnel, and responsibility for assessment of the project outcome is also shared. This shared responsibility is essential to maintain both the practical impact of the experiences and the academic validity of the student's cognitive insight into the meaning of what he or she has done.

This program is currently (1988) in its second year of operation with a cohort of about 20 students. It is a feasible and functional adaptation to the new management training and development environment established by the FCEM. However, we believe it should undergo continuous review and planning.

To that end, we have established a semi-formal consortium of ten small, rural districts, and received a planning grant from the Council to continue our design effort toward a more sophisticated and highly developed EdS program. This consortium has established a steering committee, a project design team, and is relying on a consultant project director without vested interest in either the university program or any one of the member districts' management training programs.

Early directions of the consortium's planning effort include exploration of an interdisciplinary content component in generic areas of management, policy, and evaluation. We anticipate exposing students to instruction by and professional identification with those in fields like public administration and business administration. We are also exploring greatly expanded use of case studies in the early phases of the program—at minimum, the district members of the planning group have shown a strong interest in developing the case analytic skills of their principal candidates. We plan to continue the supervised research approach to the internship, with some effort to concentrate the projects on both concepts and outcomes that demonstrate an understanding of school improvement and school effectiveness. And, finally, we are working toward inclusion of an integrative experience that will focus on helping students lay out an explicit philosophy of management with a plan for continued personal and professional development around the major assumptions inherent in that philosophy.

The planning effort is funded for the current academic year, and will become a cooperative development effort with the small districts in future years. Among the practical problems to be solved are delivery in an area of widely separated rural communities, minimal technological capability, and constrained resources. The fact that the consortium spans two time zones, also presents a practical problem in scheduling.

Policy issues. The joint planning effort we have entered with rural school districts to train Level II principals suggests some important challenges to university programs in educational leadership. These include:

1. Explicit rejection of the research degree as a useful or meaningful approach to professional training and development.

2. Explicit adoption of intellectual, ethical, and practical ties with the profession of public and private sector management training.

3. Adoption of a clear focus on the impact of school-based management on teaching and learning.

4. Rejection of bureaucratic models in favor of openness to "bottom-up" models of school improvement.

5. Commitment to clincial experience and case analysis in a context of team (versus individual) accomplishment.

6. Promotion of professional commitment to educational values, ethical standards, a coherent management philosophy, and personal professional development.

7. Acceptance of and involvement in meaningful partnerships for management development with school districts.

These seven propositions challenge us to assert a concept of school leadership grounded in practical reality, yet understood in a broader context. In our planning, we have felt keenly the ambiguities and inherent conflicts of the impending change that Florida's new system of training school administrators will have on university programs.

At Florida State University, our bread and butter program has been the doctorate—offered for years in both on- and off-campus programs. As the HRMD context has developed and gained momentum, we have begun revisions in both our master's and specialist degree programs. The research degree remains important, and we are planning ahead for the time when retirements will dictate new staffing patterns for those programs. But our emphasis is very likely to shift from the PhD to the EdD, and we expect new emphases on clinical studies, field-based research, and collaboration with school districts to characterize our directions.

The role of our faculty in educational administration will shift from that of observer, conceptualizer, theorizer to a more balanced combination of these traditional activities with roles as collaborator and consultant. We do not reject our responsibilities as members of a strong, research oriented faculty, but we will have to embrace our roles as leaders and practitioners in an applied clinical profession. Our status in the university will depend more on our ties with schools, professional educational leaders, and the policy community that seeks high-quality education than it will on our basic research productivity. Building ties that count rather than pursuing an elusive parity with pure disciplines strikes us as the immediate imperative of a field that has been criticized for the triviality of its research and the vacuousness of its conceptualization.

Even as we move toward asserting our professional independence through ties with school districts and school and policy leaders, we will have to engage the concepts and practices of the profession of management in the public and private sectors. Increasingly, schools are partners in achieving large policy goals and these policy goals are being made and implemented at the state level. Also, the corporate sector is engaging school systems, school people, and school programs in larger quests for technological development, economic competitiveness, and universal opportunity. School leaders need to be an integral part of this changing context in which they will work, but they also need tools of management with which to build high-quality organizations capable of visualizing, cooperating, achieving, changing, and accounting. The sense of being participants in the substantive profession of management as co-equals can best be established in pre-service programs that engage students in challenging cross-disciplinary study—understanding management in many contexts through broad reading, intense interchange and dialogue, and varied exposure to classical problems and settings. Such components are now lacking in our program. We are working toward ways to cross boundaries and broaden the exposure of our students to truly challenging ideas in the collection of arts and sciences called "management."

School leaders of the next generation will enter an organizational culture that has been changed by successive waves of reform. School-based management, team-oriented participatory decisionmaking, partnership commitments with the private sector, heightened professional autonomy of teachers, heightened accountability for learning outcomes, and numerous other reform-generated conditions will focus attention on "schools that work." Whatever theoretical orientation, whatever knowledge base, whatever professional skills our graduates acquire, Florida expects school leaders to be effective in getting results. Our Level III principalship certification standards will require direct evidence that a principal has actually produced school improvement. Our challenge is to understand how school improvement happens and to expose students to the ideas, the plans, the action, and the results—and to help them select and implement appropriate strategies for school improvement. This shift in the value base of school leadership from one of corporate responsiveness to traditional authority patterns, to one of creating conditions for improvement at the school level requires an outlook that envisions the role of leadership as one that empowers people to achieve important results—not one that envisions schools as entities regulated by laws, structures, and conventions.

Our view of program content is changing quickly. Level I certification in Florida requires knowledge; Level II requires performance. In order to get beyond the level of basic knowledge, potential leaders will have to be exposed to appropriate models, and they will have to act, behave, and do. Clinical experience and exposure to the field are essential to the modeling of leadership roles. The objectives of our collaborative EdS/Level II program include exposure to "best practices" and to "high performing" principals. This exposure needs to happen at two levels: Clincial observation under controlled conditions will help students identify and recognize high-order perform-

ance in leaders and in programs; secondly, direct involvement is necessary if leadership candidates are going to have the experience of high performance. Reading about, talking about, or observing these qualities does not give the student the feel of actually performing.

Florida's Level II is performance-based; we will have to expect candidates to perform, and for that performance to be systematically assessed. Assessment will require thoughtful attention to standards of performance—and it will require an ongoing research effort to validate the standards and modes of assessment. Our faculty will have to undertake training in appropriate assessment skills, and continue to refine those skills. Perhaps most importantly, we will be assuming joint responsibility for performance assessment with school districts. This joint activity will require a much stronger emphasis on clinical judgmental skills—and on clinical involvement—than is familiar or comfortable for most of our faculty. We anticipate some significant adjustments in this regard.

Our experiment is one being undertaken with optimism, and with a sense that we are going in a direction that has substantial support at the state and local level. It is a direction that also parallels recommendations in many state and national reports on educational administration. At the same time, it is a direction that counters our intuitive and habitual patterns as university faculty. Instead of playing our accustomed role of content experts, we find ourselves doing intensive joint planning with school districts and doing so around rather concrete definitions of what it means to be a school leader in, for example, Calhoun County, Florida. We have to keep the longer view and the big picture in mind, and we have to continue to play our designated role as thoughtful skeptics, conceptualizers, researchers, and philosophically detached observers. The challenge is to do this while simultaneously engaged in close contact with the clinical realities of school leadership and training activities for prospective school leaders.

Conclusion

Florida has become a breakaway state in the preparation of school leaders. Its Council on Educational Management has established a system of management training and development that was actually in place before many of the recent national reports took positions on issues long since resolved in Florida. The frontiers of school leadership training in our state, in fact, go further, in our opinion, than suggestions in *Leaders for America's Schools*.

The most radical reform in Florida is the delegation of virtually all responsibility for training and development of school principals to school districts. Universities are faced with a substantial challenge to their traditional monopoly on preparation and certification of principals. Beyond the introductory level, they have no structured role at all.

We have attempted to present the outline of one university's effort to remain substantively and constructively involved. We think the directions we have chosen

will not only work in Florida, but anticipate directions that universities in other states may take in future years. These directions challenge traditional university roles and force faculty to think about new ways of conducting their teaching, research, and service functions. This incipient revolution may be called "the reformation of a profession." These reforms have received very little national attention, but the implications are sufficiently broad and significant for university programs that they deserve a very close look.

Chapter
3

Emergent Issues in the Curriculum of Educational Administration: The University of New Mexico Case

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INTRODUCTION

In May 1987, the Department of Educational Administration (DEA) at the University of New Mexico (UNM) concluded a two-year curriculum study by formally adopting a revised MA program. Conceptually and structurally the new program differed markedly from the one developed in 1972 (Pohland & Blood, 1973). In a fundamental way, however, both programs were creatures of their times, strongly influenced by their external and internal milieus. In Part I of this paper we will describe and analyze the newly adopted MA program in its historic context, the context of reform. In Part II we will present some research findings on the relationship between that program and the administrator competencies formally adopted by the New Mexico State Board of Education in November, 1986. We conclude in Part III by raising three significant issues germane to the conceptualization and design of administrator preparation programs at large.

Part I. Program Development in the Context of Reform

The External Milieu

In the best open systems sense, the MA program reconfiguration task undertaken by the DEA was subject to substantial input from its external environment. As will be demonstrated, the sources of input were manifold, spanning the national, state, and local educational scenes.

In New Mexico, as in other states, educational reform is clearly located in the political arena. Activist governors, legislators and elected board members alike have defined education as a critical state issue. More particularly, caught up in the accountability movement of the day, the 1980 state legislature directed the State Department of Education (SDE) to conduct a "staff accountability" study to assess the real or imagined shortcomings of public education in the state. The subsequent (1981) report submitted to the State Board of Education (SBE) contained three major provisions. The first two dealt with testing requirements prior to initial teacher certification and the third with the evaluation and support (professional development) of teachers and administrators. All three provisions were adopted and, as an implementation measure, the SBE also adopted a formal set of six essential teaching competencies in 1983. A similar set of six essential principal competencies was adopted in 1984.

Giving considerable impetus to the state-wide demand for reform was the publication in 1983 of the first of the national reform reports, *A Nation at Risk*.[1] The report was given wide pre- and post-publication visibility within the state and confirmed the timeliness of the state action already taken. Indeed, *A Nation at Risk*'s identification of the need to strengthen teacher training programs may have been instrumental in the SBE's 1984 directive to the SDE to prepare a report with recommendations on the status of teacher education and licensure. The report, "Improving Teaching in New Mexico: A State Department of Education Report on the Condition of Teacher Preparation and Licensure," issued in 1985, focused the attention of the Board "as its first priority" upon issues of preparation and certification. Subsequently, the SBE: (1) appointed five twenty-member "task forces" drawn from the ranks of teachers, administrators, colleges of education, arts and sciences faculties, business and industry, parents, and community leaders to examine five related issues—certification/reciprocity, educator preparation, continuing education and recertification, alternative certification/small schools and professional status; (2) instructed one of its advisory groups, the Professional Standards Commission, to work concurrently with the task forces; and (3) enlisted the support services of the SDE in obtaining feedback on the task force recommendations via questionnaires and open hearings held state-wide.

In April, 1986, the task forces presented their proposals to the SBE. Three proposals most germane to the present discussion were: (1) competencies would be the basis for administrative licensure; (2) the SBE would identify the requisite competencies; and (3) two levels of administrative certification would be established; one aimed primarily at instructional support personnel, and one directed toward

management.[3] In May 1986, the SBE adopted the task force proposals with provision for a three-year phase-in period. Given the new "blueprint" for certification, in November 1986, the SBE adopted a more generic set of *administrator* competencies complementing the *principal* competencies adopted two years earlier.[3] These competencies covered six broad areas of administration ranging from promoting an environment conducive to learning (# I) to demonstrating an understanding of political theory (# IV). Thirty-four specific competencies were distributed among the six areas (see Appendix 1). Finally, on January 19, 1987, the SBE adopted a comprehensive set of regulations governing administrative licensure in the State effective July 1, 1989. Among the qualifying elements specified were:

1. a bachelor's and master's degree from a regionally accredited school;

2. an apprenticeship of not less than 180 clock hours under the supervision of a college or university *or* a local superintendent;

3. a Level II [permanent] teaching certificate;

4. 18 hours of graduate credit in an educational administration program "approved by the State Board of Education" and "must address the State Board of Educations' approved functional areas and related competencies in education administration"; and

5. passage of the Core Battery of the NTE and "any appropriate specialty area."

Thus, by 1987 a revised and strengthened state structure for administrator training and licensure was in place.

An Internal Milieu

As pressures for change from the external milieu impacted the DEA in its program reconsiderations, so also did pressures generated internally. In the 15 years between the adoption of the old and new MA programs, the College of Education and the DEA had undergone profound changes. At the college level, successive changes in the deanship were reflected in ever increasing sensitivity to the external environment and its attendant pressure groups. Programmatically, this was accomplished by greater emphasis upon "education for the workplace," the institution of field-based programs, and increased utilization of practitioners in the instructional programs.

The DEA mirrored these changes, notably with respect to faculty and the approach to administration. In 1972, the department was firmly rooted in and committed to the tenets of "theory movement." All six of the full-time instructional faculty were products of prestigious universities which had embraced the "new movement." Collectively, they represented the social sciences fields associated with the theory movement—sociology, political science, economics, law, etc., and subscribed to a mutually reinforcing set of traditional academic norms. By 1987, this

faculty configuration had changed markedly. Only one of the six 1972 full-time faculty was still actively teaching in the department. Replacement faculty were less likely than before to have been trained in departments of educational administration and represented a wider range of professional interests (e.g., adult education, post-secondary education, curriculum and instruction). Equally important, a strong practitioner presence was clearly evident on the faculty roster in 1987 where little had been fifteen years earlier.

Programmatically, focus on the *study* of administration incrementally shifted to focus on the *practice* of administration and the competencies needed to practice successfully. This shifting focus is clearly visible in changed course descriptions, basic texts and course syllabi. For example, in 1974, the course descriptor for Introduction to Educational Administration read:

This introductory course in Educational Administration is designed to acquaint the student with:

1. the historical development of administrative thought,

2. the development of knowledge in the field of administration, and

3. significant areas of concern for educational administrators.

By 1986, "Intro" had been replaced by "Problem Solving in Educational Organizations," a course described thus:

> The course provides a basic introduction to, and understanding of, the major functions that comprise the role of educational administrators, including program development, operations management and administration of organizations. Students will gain a better understanding of these functions, as well as, be introduced to a variety of conceptual approaches that can help them analyze and solve practical problems of administrations. Simulations, case studies and team projects are emphasized.

Choice of basic texts also reflected the changing focus of the program. For example, from 1974 to 1984, the basic text for the Principalship course was Etzioni's *Modern Organizations*; in 1987 it became Hoyle, English and Steffy's *Skills for Successful School Leaders*. Syllabus fragments from the same course equally evidence this shift:

(1983) *Formal and Informal Aspects of School Organizations*
Required Readings:

1. *Modern Organizations*, Chapter 1-4.

*2. Weick, "Administering Loosely Coupled Systems."

*3. Hannaway and Sproull, "Who's Running the Show? Coordination and Control in Educational Organizations."

Suggested Readings:

1. Campbell, "A History of Administrative Thought."
2. "Colleagues and Peers."
3. "Five Views of a Business Organization."
4. Callahan, "Education and the Cult of Efficiency."
5. Katz and Kahn, "The Taking of Organizational Roles," Chapter 7 in *The Social Psychology of Organizations* (2nd edition), New York: John Wiley, 1978.

1987 *Management of Resources*:
The principal's role in the management of human resources, monetary resources, legal resources, facilities, materials, program and time.
Read: Hoyle—Pages 163-201, English and Steffy.
Competency Goals:

1. To be able to allocate human, material and financial resources efficiently in an accountable manner to ensure successful student learning.
2. N. M. Adm. Competency: II-C, D, E, F, G.

Clearly, the changes in program emphases were substantial.

Linking the External and Internal Milieus

While pressures from the external and internal milieus have been presented independently, the linkages between them were fairly substantial. Not surprisingly, faculty was the major linkage mechanism. For example, at the national level, one member of the faculty, Dr. Manual Justice, had been appointed Director of the National Institute of Education. State-wide, another faculty member had been appointed to one of the task forces established by the SBE. Three other faculty were in close communication with SDE, and multiple linkages with school districts existed. At all levels, communication flowed freely and mutual influencing occurred.

The Emergent Program

Within the contexts described, the faculty of the DEA initiated the serious

business of program revision in the fall of 1985. In addition to the macro environmental pressures described, the faculty was guided by three consciously derived premises:

1. potentially competing claims/emphases should be balanced: individual vs. organizational development, cognitive vs. experiential learning, present vs. future time orientation, high vs. low program flexibility, and organizational maintenance vs. change;

2. certain skills and knowledge exist that are basic to administrator effectiveness; and

3. certain types of functions performed by administrators exist that, while clearly related, are also clearly distinct and identifiable; namely, those related to people, to management operations, to programs and to policy development. Finally, these premises were believed to be equally valid for both departmental program emphases: the elementary-secondary administration and adult/post-secondary education.

As the process wore on over the two years, the political nature of program development became readily apparent. Faculty variously advocated cherished values. A research component was carried over from the "old" program and a new "foundations" course focusing upon the historical, sociological, and philosophical underpinnings of administration was grafted upon the design. Similarly, with new state certification requirements in mind, an internship/independent study component was included. Ultimately, however, consensus was reached on a program which retained the integrity of the original premises to a surprising degree while accommodating both traditional and emergent values. In the language of Murphy and Hallinger (1987), it contained a blend of the old and new theory movements (Murphy & Hallinger, 1987). Structurally, the program is depicted in Figure 1.

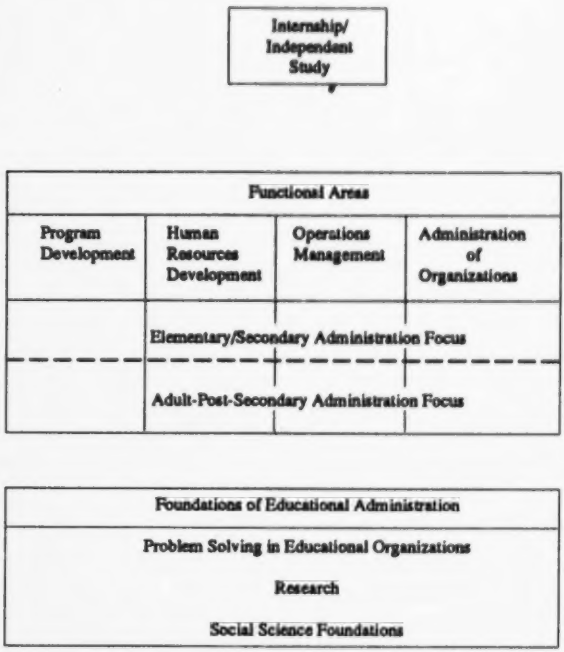
As shown in Figure 1, the program is three-tiered and hierarchic. At its base is a required three course, ten-hour "foundations" component. Upon this base a "functional areas" component is erected.[4] Students are required to take one three-hour course from among the options available in each of the four specified functional areas. Capping the structure is a three- to six-hour internship/independent study component. A choice of eight to eleven hours of electives rounds out the minimum thirty-six hour program.

The attempt to blend the old and new paradigms is clear as one examines the components of the reconfigured program. The internship/independent study component is a clear bow to State demands for an apprenticeship as well as recognizing the recommendations emanating from the profession, notably those embodied in *The Report of the National Commission on Excellence in Educational Administration.* Yet, in phrasing that component as it did, the faculty also recognized the viability of alternatives.

The functional areas component clearly reflects the reform agenda at the state level. Its language system is identical with that of the SBE's 1987 regulations.

However, this component is absent in the state's language of "competencies," and in the provision for a functional area called "Administration of Organization," place was made for existing courses from the old tradition, e.g., "Organizational Analysis." By and large, however, this component more than the others reflects the struggles to achieve the balance sought in the first premise.

Figure 1: MA program structural design.



Finally, the foundations component also is reflective of blending. The "foundations" course is clearly in the old tradition. Equally clearly, the problem-solving course is anchored in the new. Fittingly, the third course (research) straddles the fence: In refusing to specify, students are free to choose from among those research courses available which emphasize knowledge generation (research and statistics) and those which emphasize knowledge application and utilization.

In summary, between 1985 and 1987, the Department of Educational Administration at the University of New Mexico, conceptually and operationally restructured its MA program. The activity was undertaken at a time when there was substantial external and internal press for reform. The three-component, three-tiered program which resulted was in many respects a blend of the old and new theory movements.

Part II. Competencies and Program

As noted, during the 1985-1987 biennium, developmental work at the state and university level proceeded in largely parallel fashion. Moreover, both the faculty of the DEA and the SBE/SDE essentially completed their tasks simultaneously. Hence, only after the SBE administrator competencies were in place and the structure of the reconstrued MA program was adopted was the fit between competencies and program determined. This task was accomplished via a set of eight research questions. The questions, research procedures and the data are presented serially.

Research Question #1

1. To what degree are the SBE administrator competencies as perceived by the faculty embedded in individual department course offerings?

To obtain data on Research Question #1 faculty (N=17) were provided one or more copies of the SBE competencies and sub-competencies (Appendix 1) and were asked to indicate by circling the competencies addressed in their respective course(s). The result was a 34 x 34 (competencies by courses) matrix, the basic data set. Analysis of results indicated that faculty estimates of the competencies addressed by course ranged from a high of 31 (91%) to 0 with a mean of 16 (47%) and a median of 15 (44%). (See Appendix 2 for list of courses.) Collapsing the competency data and applying the rule that half or more of the sub-competencies in each set had to be addressed to count as present resulted in the data displayed in Table 1. Inspection of Table 1 reveals that faculty reported a mean of 3 competency sub-sets per course in the 30 courses for which data were available, with competencies # III (accuracy and effectiveness of communication), # I (promotion of an environment/climate conducive to learning), and # V (demonstrated leadership) receiving the greatest emphases across courses.

Research Question #2

2. How adequate as course descriptors do faculty perceive the SBE administrator competencies?

To obtain data on Research Question #2, the original data forms submitted by faculty were returned to them with the following request:

> We would like you to react to the adequacy of the competencies as course descriptors. That is, we would like you to respond to each course for which you initially supplied data and indicate how well or completely the competencies checked reflect your objectives for the course. Another way of saying that is to ask the question, "How well do the competencies reflect what I think is important in this class?"

Returns provided both quantitative and qualitative data. Quantitative estimates of the fit between course descriptors and SBE competencies ranged from 20-80 percent (Mean=48%; Median=50%). This was consistent with the prior data.

Table 1

Faculty Perceptions: Competencies X Courses

	Courses[2]																	
Competencies[1]	1[3]	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16[4]	17	18
Set I		X	X		X		X		X		X		X	X	X		X	X
Set II							X	X					X					
Set III		X	X	X	X				X	X	X	X	X	X	X		X	X
Set IV					X			X	X	X	X			X	X		X	X
Set V			X	X	X		X	X		X				X			X	X
Set VI				X	X	X	X	X				X						
Total	0	2	3	3	5	1	4	4	3	3	3	2	3	4	3	0	4	4

Competencies[1]	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	26	27	28	29	30[5]	31[6]	32	33	34	T
Set I		X	X	X	X		X	X		X					X		19
Set II		X			X						X				X		7
Set III	X		X		X	X	X	X	X	X				X	X	X	34
Set IV		X	X		X				X								13
Set V		X	X		X		X	X	X	X				X	X	X	19
Set VI		X			X									X	X	X	11
Total	1	5	4	1	6	1	3	3	3	3	1	0	0	3	3	3	

[1]See Appendix 1 for listing of competencies

[2]See Appendix 2 for listing of courses

[3]Course under development

[4]Faculty member retired

[5]Doctoral research course

Predictably, those faculty finding little relation between objectives and competencies were most prone to provide critical qualitative data. A few samples suffice:

> As far as I'm concerned, the . . . seminar is aimed primarily at providing a knowledge base and a set of analytical tools which can be applied in later *performance*-related parts of our program . . .

> To focus upon the SBE competencies is to mistake OJT [on-the-job training] for graduate education. [The course] focus is upon individual leadership needs but also is at a much higher conceptual level and well beyond administrator competencies.
> The SBE competencies are large (sic) conventional wisdom with an overlay of SDE bias and as such are hardly the stuff of graduate education.

Given the independent development of the state mandated competencies and the MA program in Educational Administration, the paradigm struggles embodied in the development of that program, and the largely technical orientation of the competencies in contrast to the more conceptual orientation of many of the faculty, the 47 percent competency embeddedness in the courses reported in the prior data is both surprising and encouraging.

Research Questions #3 and 4

3. To what degree are the SBE administrator competencies as perceived by students embedded in individual course offerings?

4. To what degree are faculty and student perceptions in agreement as to the presence/absence of SBE competencies in individual course offerings?

Because of our interest in determining the fit between competencies and the program MA students were likely to experience, it was decided to reduce the set of thirty-four courses to those which met the following criteria: (1) included 50 percent or more of the SBE competencies by faculty estimate; (2) were most likely to be taught regularly (at least once every two years); and (3) were likely to enroll a representative number of students (at least twenty in two years). Thirteen courses met these requirements (see starred courses in Appendix 2). Of these, 11 were distributed across the "functional areas" component of the MA program (Program Development=1, Human Resources Development=4, Operations Management=2, and Administration of Organizations=4), and two were "foundational." All succeeding analyses were based upon the resultant 34 x 13 (competencies by course) matrix.

Subsequent to course selection, decision rules relative to student selection and number were established. These included: (1) current enrollment in the DEA; (2) course completion within the past six semesters; (3) enrollment in the course taught by the faculty member who originally identified the presence/absence of the SBE competencies in the course; and (4) a limit of three students respondents per course. With these rules in mind, students were located and requested to take part in the study by completing the same task which faculty had engaged in earlier, that is, specifying which of the SBE competencies were embedded in the course. Thirty-nine students (3 students x 13 courses), the number required for a full data set, participated. Data bearing on faculty perceptions, student perceptions, and the extent of agreement between faculty and students relative to competency embeddedness are presented in Table 2. Inspection reveals: (1) that in only one course (509) do faculty and students vary widely in their perceptions; (2) that in general, students tend to be more generous in their estimates of the degree to which SBE competencies are present in the courses examined; and (3) that faculty and students tend to agree about 62 percent of the time.

Research Questions #5, 6, 7, and 8

5. To what degree are the SBE administrator competencies as perceived by faculty present *across* course offerings?

Table 2:

Respondents by Course Competencies

Course[1]

Estimate

	560	530	509	581[a]	520	521	581[e]	571	522	512	581[i]	581[j]	510	X%	Range
Faculty estimate[2]	44.1[3]	47.1	38.2	64.7	70.6	35.2	61.8	64.7	58.8	55.9	47.1	52.9	50.0	53.2	35.2-70.6
Student estimate[4]	53.9	57.8	73.5	75.5	64.7	48.0	57.8	61.8	55.9	61.8	49.0	52.0	52.0	54.0	49.0-75.5
Fac/Stu agreement	58.8	65.7	54.9	55.9	71.6	57.8	64.7	75.5	58.8	55.9	63.7	63.7	61.8	62.2	55.9-75.5

[1]See Appendix 2 for course titles

[2]Faculty estimate of competencies embedded in courses

[3]All data reported in percent

[4]Student estimate of competencies embedded in courses

6. To what degree are the SBE administrator competencies as perceived by students present *across* course offerings?

7. To what degree are faculty and student perceptions in agreement as to the the presence/absence of SBE administrator competencies *across* courses?

8. To what degree are faculty and student perceptions independent *across* courses?

While the course was the unit of analysis for Research Questions 1-4, the competencies became the unit in Research Questions 5-8. Data bearing on them are presented in Table 3. Consistent with the data reported in Table 2, Table 3 indicates that faculty and students perceive the SBE competencies to be present across courses slightly in excess of 50 percent. Similarly, the 63.4 percent faculty/student agreement is consistent with the within course calculation of 62.2 percent. Column 8 of Table 3 exhibits data bearing on the independence of faculty and student perceptions. Thirty-four Chi Square tests of independence were conducted. Fifty-two responses (thirteen faculty and thirty-nine student) were cross-tabulated for each test. Of the thirty-four tests, only one x^2 value was found to be significant at the .05 level. Given the number of tests, the conservative stance would be to consider this test of significance spurious. The more general conclusion to be drawn is that faculty and students arrived at their conclusions about the presence/absence of SBE competencies across courses independently.

Part III. Competencies and Programs Reconsidered

In *A History of Thought and Practice in Educational Administration*, Campbell, Fleming, Newell, and Bennion (1987) note that "graduate programs in educational administration have oscillated between 'preparing the person' and preparing for the role'" (p. 171).

> In the first case, the candidate is especially encouraged to develop his or her intellectual capacities, educational philosophy and cultural awareness. Knowledge and self-understanding are primary. In the other case, the emphasis is on shaping the individual to fit the role or roles he or she is preparing to assume. Here, the chief purpose is to help the student understand the job and the institution and to acquire the skills necessary to serve the institution and meet the requirements of the position. (p. 171)

Further:

> Assumptions made about these differing goals of graduate study shape the perceptions of professors, practitioners, and students about the content and design of graduate programs. For instance, those who view the intellectual and personal development of the person as the essential historical and

Table 3:

Compentencies by Respondents

	Faculty		Students		Agreement		2
	N	%	N	%	N	%	
Competency							
I. Environment							
A	11	84.6	29	74.4	27	69.2	<1
B	9	69.2	29	74.4	29	74.4	<1
C	9	69.2	31	79.5	27	69.2	<1
D	6	46.2	30	76.9	26	66.7	5.20 p<.05
E	9	69.2	30	76.9	26	66.7	<1
F	11	84.6	31	79.5	29	69.2	<1
G	5	38.5	20	51.3	17	43.6	<1
II. Resources							
A	6	46.2	16	41.0	25	64.1	<1
B	6	46.2	26	66.7	20	51.3	<1
C	3	23.1	21	53.8	22	56.4	2.58
D	3	23.1	14	35.9	30	76.9	<1
E	3	23.1	13	33.3	29	74.4	<1
F	3	23.1	21	53.8	21	53.8	<1
G	2	15.4	12	30.8	25	64.1	3.11
III. Communication							
A	9	69.2	29	79.4	25	64.1	<1
B	12	92.3	28	71.8	27	69.2	<1
C	11	84.6	29	74.4	29	74.4	<1
D	11	84.6	32	82.1	30	76.9	<1
IV. Supervision							
A	7	53.8	20	51.3	22	56.4	<1
B	8	61.5	20	51.3	22	56.4	<1
C	5	38.5	17	43.6	21	53.8	<1
D	8	61.5	17	43.6	17	43.6	<1
E	10	76.9	23	59.0	24	61.5	<1
V. Leadership							
A	8	61.5	32	82.1	23	59.0	1.30
B	10	76.9	24	61.5	24	61.5	<1
C	8	61.5	26	66.7	20	51.3	<1
D	7	53.8	27	69.2	23	59.0	<1
E	8	61.5	25	64.1	22	56.4	<1
F	4	30.8	15	38.5	22	56.4	<1
VI. Politics							
A	5	38.5	24	61.5	20	51.3	1.27
B	4	30.8	24	61.5	21	53.8	2.58
C	4	30.8	16	41.0	29	74.4	<1
D	3	23.1	13	33.3	27	69.2	<1
E	7	53.8	21	53.8	25	64.1	<1
X	6.9	53.2	23.2	59.6	24.7	63.4	

***Figure 2*: Differentiating dimensions of the old and new paradigms in educational administration.**

	Variable	*Old Paradigm*	*New Paradigm*
1.	Goal	Prepare the person	Prepare for or enhance practice in the role
2.	Knowledge base	Social and behavioral sciences	Professional knowledge and experience
3.	Concept of	Behavioral science administration	Applied science or craft
4.	Focus	Intellectual development	Skill development
5.	Logic-in-use	Deductive	Inductive
6.	Model Teacher	Scholar-researcher	The "reflective practitioner" (Schon, 1983)
7.	Learning	Traditional; theory to practice	"Reflection-in-action"; "critical reflexivity" (Mezirow, 1981); guided by principles of adult learning and staff development
8.	Intellectual processes	Primacy accorded to "logical processes" (Barnard, 1938)*	Primacy accorded to "non-logical processes; intuition
9.	Administrative perspective	External and generalized	Internal and site specific
10.	Preferred clientele	Pre-service	In-service

*The terms "logical" and "non-logical" come from Chester Barnard's (1938) appendix to *The Functions of the Executive* entitled "Mind in Everyday Affairs." Barnard writes:

> By "logical processes" I mean conscious thinking which could be expressed in words, or other symbols, that is reasoning. By "non-logical processes" I mean those not capable of being expressed in words or as reasoning, which are only made known by a judgment, decision or action . . . . They also consist of the mass of facts, patterns, concepts, techniques, abstractions, and generally what we call formal knowledge or beliefs, which are impressed upon our minds more or less by conscious effort and study. This second source of non-logical mental processes greatly increases with directed experience, study, and education. (p. 302)

> philosophical curriculum emphasize the role and nature of leadership, the centrality of a philosophy of education, and a broad understanding of societal issues and values. By contrast, those who see the role as the controlling idea find special merit in role theory and behavioral research derived from the social sciences. These professors rely heavily on competency development, role plays, simulations and field work. (p. 172)

Struggles over goals and means to achieve these goals are not new in educational administration as elsewhere. They have been well documented by Callahan (1986), Tyack and Hansot (1982), Campbell et al. (1987), and Murphy and Hallinger (1987). Most recently, they have been characterized as a paradigm struggle between the old and new theory movements (Murphy & Hallinger, 1987). Our reading of ten major dimensions of that struggle are depicted in Figure 2. We present it as a framework for identifying and addressing several issues of substance.

Issue #1: Consistencies and Incompatibilities

Even a cursory examination of the paradigms presented in Figure 2 reveals the high degree of consistency within each. Nothing is discordant. The old paradigm is relentlessly "scientific"; the new relentlessly "practical." They differ ontologically, axiologically, and epistemologically. Both emerge as reactions, as creatures of their times. Both are defensible. Both deal with essential aspects of the administrator's world. But they are different; they may be complementary but they are not substitutable. Therein lies the dilemma.

In the educational context of the United States in contrast with that of Western Europe (Buckely, 1985) or Australia, distinct traditions have developed which govern pre- and in-service training. Part of the U. S. tradition is the absence of a well-articulated career ladder system which progressively introduces the administrative aspirant to the critical aspects of that world. Consequently, pre-service administrative trainees enter formal programs experientially unprepared. Given this, admonitions to engage in peer learning and critical reflexivity are suspect.

The reverse is equally true. In-service programs have been predicted largely upon the assumption of an experiential base. Until recently, the assumption has also been that participants have fundamental mastery of the essential skills which in-service training will "up-grade." Here, the assumptions of experiential and adult learning seem appropriate. However, the emphasis upon reflective practice goes well beyond the up-grading of skills. Moreover, experience itself does not force one to confront the major social issues of the day. Finally, neither intuition nor "non-logical" processes celebrated by Barnard are sufficient for critical reflexivity. As Kant wrote in *The Critique of Pure Reason*, "intuitions without concepts are blind" (p. 55).

All this leads to the articulation of several concerns. First, in-service models are clearly in the ascendancy in educational administration at the present time. Ten of the eleven new approaches identified by Murphy and Hallinger (1987) are in that mode. The eleventh, the AASA model, has been assessed by Cooper and Boyd (1987) as "old wine in old bottles" (p. 17). This provides a ready climate for bandwagoning—the

mindless grafting of in-service models upon pre-service paradigms. Second, if a deductive model of knowledge acquisition is found wanting in terms of relevance, and if the experiential basis is lacking for inductive approaches, what viable alternatives beside "recipes" are there for administrator training? The National Commission on Excellence in Educational Administration has suggested one. The chapters in the Murphy and Hallinger volume suggest the possibility of others.[3]

Issue #2: Training, Skills, Craft, and Applied Science

Four concepts—training, skills, craft, and applied science—are readily associated with the "new thoery movement." These four concepts are clearly compatible, and, in juxtaposition, disturbing. They appear textually in the chapter by Murphy and Hallinger (1987) as follows:

> We are well aware of current efforts to distinguish training from professional development and education. However, we believe that training serves as a reasonable term for the approaches discussed in this book (p. 246).
>
> . . . school administrators need skills if they are to be successful (p. 255).
>
> . . . there is some movement away from a science paradigm and toward a craft paradigm (p. 259).
>
> . . . educational administration is an applied science (p. 253).

Collectively, these terms communicate a new image of the school administrator—not the philosopher-statesperson, educational capitalist, business manager, school executive, administrator as social agency, or behavioral scientist to use Cooper and Boyd's (1987) classification scheme. Instead the image is that of the skilled technician, the trained craftsperson schooled in prescriptions for practice by other practitioners.

Since the perception of administration as applied science or craft is central to this analysis, some further discussion is warranted. As Sergiovanni (1985) has observed, "Applied science flows from basic science as embodied in key underlying disciplines . . . and used this scientific knowledge to build practice models and standard practice treatments" (p. 10). In his schema the knowledge flow is as follows:

> Creation of knowledge through research
> to build models of practice
> from which prescriptions are generated
> to be communicated to professionals
> for use in practice (p. 11)

Thus, to claim an activity as an applied science is to place it at the bottom of the knowledge hierarchy. Moreover, conceptualizing administration as a craft rather than

an applied science does not enhance the status of the profession. In fact, as Sergiovanni (1987) has also pointed out, crafts differ from applied sciences insofar as they are "less encompassing" in their knowledge base and "emphasize less creating knowledge in use in favor of refining existing techniques" (p. 4).

Thus the confluence of terms—training, skills, craft, and applied science is disturbing. Collectively they have the potential to de-professionalize the administrative role. Such an outcome is inconsistent with the stance that school administrators are critical and efficacious in school improvement efforts. Moreover, administration conceptualized as craft or applied science legitimates peer "training" as the appropriate instructional mode and skill (competency) acquisition as the primary desired outcome. Logically, such programs have little or no place in the university.[5]

Issue #3: The Profession and the Workplace

In their "Analysis of Current Conditions," Murphy and Hallinger (1987) identify as one of the "major generic problems with existing professional development in the area of school" (p. 253) the "need to bring the training process more in line with the conditions and milieu of the workplace." In the succeeding brief discussion of that need, the authors assert that "new efforts should be devoted to developing institutional strategies that not only provide administrators with meaningful knowledge and skills, but that do so while fostering skills prized in the workplace" (Murphy & Hallinger, 1987, p. 255). Concern about the proper relation between the profession and the workplace is the focus of attention here.

As Callahan (1986), Tyack and Hansot (1982), and others have demonstrated from an historical perspective, educators at large and educational administrators in particular have been acutely sensitive to the demands of the workplace. Indeed, one could argue quite persuasively that each of the major shifts in conception of the school administrator from the 19th century "Happy Amateur" (Cooper and Boyd, 1987, p. 7) to the current "reflective practitioner" has been in response to market demands. Whether designed to produce efficiency experts, school executives or agents of social change, administrator preparation programs attempted to incorporate skills prized in the workplace. Moreover, the response to market demands on the part of educational leadership has been more cheerful than reluctant acquiescence. As Tyack and Hansot (1982) have pointed out, with the exception of reforms initiated during the Civil Rights movement, the leadership cadre in education has consistently "acted in concert politically, ideologically, and programmatically with the most powerful forces in America, the economic and professional elites . . ." (p. 206).

The alliance between the professional leadership and the economic (capitalist) elites is the focus for "critical theorists" (Foster, 1984, pp. 240-259) in their critique of the dominant modes of administrator preparation. For them, and especially those of a Marxian persuasion, the schools under the domination of the capitalist elites have been a major mechanism for maintenance of the existing social order and the oppression of the masses. Further, so the argument goes, one successful strategy used by the dominant power structure has been to define school administration in terms of technocratic rationality—a stance totally consistent with an emphasis upon the

mastery of "competencies." Moreover, conceptualizing administration solely in technocratic terms assures that ends are subordinate to means and serious debate over ends is effectively foreclosed.

The force of the critical theorists' argument can be estimated by carefully examining the New Mexico administrator competencies (Appendix 1). They are clearly technocratic insofar as they are both behavioristic and limiting. In the first instance they are reminiscent of Gulick's POSDCoRB—planning, organizing, staffing, directing, coordinating, reporting, and budgeting. In the second and more serious instance they clearly indicate the administrator's subordinate status, e.g., to "respond positively to supervision" (Appendix 1, I. g.) and "plans, develops, implements, and evaluates programs to achieve *established* goals" (Appendix 1, V. d.; emphasis added). Substantive involvement in goal setting and policy formulation is neither wanted nor valued.

Thus, the appropriate relation of the profession to the workplace is joined over a set of related issues: (1) To what degree should the profession be responsive to the "conditions and milieu of the workplace?"; (2) If the training of administrators is brought more in-line with the workplace, can adequate provision be made for a "disciplined critique of their [administrators'] own institutions?" (Foster, 1984, p. 247); (3) What responsibility should the profession assume for expressing an independent voice in the formulation of educational goals in a democratic society?"; and (4) to bring the argument full circle, "To what end shall pre- and in-service administrator training programs be constructed, how shall they be constructed, and who should be influential in their construction?" These questions are endemic to the profession.

Conclusion

In the introduction to this paper three tasks were identified: (1) to describe and analyze a revised MA program in educational administration at the University of New Mexico within the context of national and state educational reform; (2) to analyze the relationship between that program and the state-mandated administrative competencies; and (3) to raise a set of generalized issues germane to the conceptualization and design of administrator preparation programs. We think we have accomplished these three tasks. What remains is to reflect upon our experiences, particularly with respect to our encounters with the issues raised in Part 3.

Retrospectively, we recognize that the paradigm struggles in which we were engaged were neither fully recognized nor appreciated at the time. Nor did the critical issues embedded in them emerge clearly, well-defined, and individually tractable. Rather, they emerged piecemeal, largely inarticulate and as a tangled web defying easy resolution. Perhaps that accounts for the nearly two years it took to arrive at a consensus on the program.

Yet, we would agree that struggling with the issues within our particular time and place was salutary. The program that evolved summarizes our efforts as a faculty to cope with the pre-service/in-service dichotomies, to resolve the tension between

competency demands emanating from the workplace and scholarly demands emanating from the academy which went "well beyond" those originating elsewhere; and to recognize programmatically the applied science/craft nature of administration as well as its social science foundations. Our resolution of these struggles, the program described in Part III, fits us in our place, in our time. We do not presume to think our solution is universalistic. We do assert, however, that engaging in the debate is.

Notes

1. Much of the visibility can be attributed to the fact that the superintendent of the state's largest school district, Francisco D. Sanchez, Jr., was a member of the National Commission on Excellence in Education.

2. This proposal while adopted has not been implemented.

3. The administrative competencies are applicable to all positions requiring administrative licensure other than the principalship. However, the overlap between the two sets of competencies is considerable.

4. This is an example of the mutual influencing referred to earlier. As a matter of fact, the DEA's use of the term "functional areas" preceded that of the SBE.

5. It may be that no synthesis is possible. For a parallel case, see J. K. Smith (1983). Quantitative versus qualitative research: An attempt to clarify the issue, *Education Researcher*, *12*, 6-13.

6. The opposite position can also be taken but it assumes a different order of skills. See J. March, "Analytical Skills and the University Training of Educational Administrators," *Education and Urban Society* 6(4), 283-427: (August 1974).

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Appendix I

New Mexico State Board of Education

ADMINISTRATOR COMPETENCIES

(To be included in a university's preparation program)

I. The administrator promotes an environment/climate conducive to productive performance. To do this, the administrator:

A. displays empathy toward persons with whom he/she comes into contact professionally;

B. promotes quality relationships among staff/students;

C. utilizes participatory management techniques;

D. respects and understands multi-cultural and ethnic societies;

E. practices a professional code of ethics (e.g., rules of confidentiality, legal guidelines for personnel);

F. establishes and maintains open lines of communication; and

G. responds positively to supervision.

II. The administrator plans for and manages the resources for which he/she is responsible, including personnel, finances, facilities, program, and time. To do this, the administrator:

A. implements district, state, and federal goals;

B. organizes tasks based on relevant objectives;

C. organizes, coordinates, and supervises staff assignments and needs;

D. carries out appropriate fiscal procedures;

E. utilizes and maintains facilities;

F. demonstrates efficient time management by establishing schedules and reasonable timelines for completing tasks; and

G. utilizes available technology to meet administrative objectives.

III. The administrator communicates accurately and effectively. To do this, the administrator:

A. writes and speaks appropriately;

B. keeps staff and community informed of pertinent information;

C. utilizes appropriate listening skills; and

D. is receptive to the ideas of others.

IV. The administrator uses supervision, staff development and performance evaluation to improve the program of the district. To do this, the administrator:

A. implements a collaborative process in staff development;

B. identifies and acknowledges effective performance in objective terms;

C. assists individual professional development planning;

D. develops, implements, and evaluates the staff development program, utilizing a variety of resources; and

E. collects and uses adequate information before making supervisory decisions.

V. The administrator demonstrates leadership. To do this, the administrator:

A. utilizes community demographs, educational standards, laws, and current educational research in planning and decisionmaking;

B. makes firm but reasonable decisions and accepts responsibility for those decisions;

C. develops measurable goals with input from the educational community;

D. plans, develops, implements, and evaluates programs to achieve established goals;

E. delegates responsibility and utilizes resources within the education community; and

F. evaluates his/her own performance and implements a professional development plan.

VI. The administrator demonstrates an understanding of political theory. To do this, the administrator:

A. utilizes skills in developing school-community and school-parent relations, coalition building and related public service activities;

B. understands the politics of school governance and operation;

C. informs the public of relevant facts to aid them in reaching an informed judgment on tax, bond and other referenda;

D. exhibits skills in lobbying, negotiating, collective bargaining, policy development, and policy maintenance; and

E. utilizes conflict resolution skills to cope with controversies.

Appendix 2

List Courses (Tables 1 and 2)

1.	503	Problem Solving in Educational Organizations
2.	509*	Organizational Analysis
3.	510*	School-Community Relations
4.	512*	Public Education in New Mexico
5.	520*	School Principalship
6.	521*	Public School Finance
7.	522*	School Business Management
8.	526	Educational Planning and Program Development
9.	530*	Administration of Adult Education
10.	531	Administration of Staff Personnel
11.	560*	Supervision of Instruction
12.	561	School Law
13.	564	School-Community Surveys
14.	571*	Teaching the Adult Learner
15.	572	Methods & Materials of Adult Education
16.	581*	Seminar: Educational Futures
17.	581**	Seminar: Administration of Curriculum Change
18.	581[b]	Seminar: Group Processes
19.	581[c]	Seminar: Policy Analysis
20.	581[d]	Seminar: Rural Schools Administration
21.	581[e]	Seminar: Organizational Development

22.	581[f]	Seminar: Social Psychology of Women in Organizations
23.	581[g]	Seminar: Administration in Multi-cultural Settings
24.	581[h]	Seminar: Program Evaluation
25.	581[i]	Seminar: Stress Management
26.	581[j]	Seminar: Leader Behavior
27.	581[k]	Seminar: Personnel Evaluation
28.	593	Management
29.	593	Administrative Applications of Technology
30.	593	Foundations of Educational Administration
31.	605	Qualitative Research in Education
32.	610	Organizational Change
33.	630	Administration of High Education
34.	581[l]*	Seminar: Public School Reform

Chapter
4

Connecting Theory and Practice in the Educational Administration Curriculum: The Medical School Model and the Sciences of the Artificial

Jonathan Z. Shapiro

Artificial

In a recent issue of the *UCEA Review*, McCarthy (1987) reports on a survey of the professoriate in educational administration. Among the results is the finding that 64 percent of those surveyed, and 55 percent of those from UCEA institutions, feel that the literature in educational administration should not be theory based (p. 4). Such a finding implies, at least, that the profession as a whole has not arrived at any consensus as to the role that theory can or should play in the training of educational administrators. The purpose of this paper is to consider two possible theory/practice relationships in educational administration and assess two curricular models, each of which is consistent with one of the relationships. It is asserted that the theory/practice relationship is asymmetric, either the purpose of practice is to validate theory through reality testing, or the purpose of theory is to serve and enhance effective practice.

Two curriculum models are examined in this paper. One, the medical school model (Schwab, 1964), maintains a prominent role for clinical experience, consistent with the recommendations of the National Commission on Excellence in Educational Administration (1987). The second model, labeled the sciences of the artificial approach, is primarily due to the work of Simon (1981) and Alexander (1967). The central argument offered in this paper is that the medical school model, despite the heavy clinical emphasis, results in training which emphasizes theory over practice, while the artificial science approach has a greater potential for utilizing theory in the service of practice.

The Medical School Model

An early description of the medical school model and its application to educational administration was written by Schwab (1964). Schwab's description of the components of the medical school model consisted of the following (1964, pp. 65-66):

1. pure theory - anatomy, physiology, physics, and biochemistry,
2. theory of practice - diseases and pathology, their symptoms, etiology, cause and treatment,
3. case histories,
4. clinical experience,
5. residency, and
6. continuing education.

Of particular interest are the stages in the university setting, namely theory, pure and practical, case studies, and clinical experiences. According to the National Commission on Excellence in Educational Administration, a method for promoting improved practice is to differentiate the curriculum for prospective researchers and practitioners in educational administration, restructuring the education of practitioners along the lines of other professional disciplines. This is based on the argument that the logic of a professional model, such as that employed in medical education, is ". . . well-suited for the important work of school administration" (National Commission on Excellence in Educational Administration, p. 20). In order to assess the potential impact of such a model on practice, an examination of the literature on the current state of medical education was conducted as were interviews with graduates and faculty of medical programs.

The Current State of the Medical School Model

An examination of the literature in medical education reveals that even as the National Commission on Excellence in Educational Administration calls for the use

of a professional school model to improve practice, a parallel committee, studying medical education, calls for significant changes in the medical school model to improve practice in medicine. The report of the panel on the general professional education of the physician and college preparation for medicine, entitled *Physicians for the Twenty-First Century* (Muller, 1984), identifies the need for significant restructuring of the medical school curriculum to produce better practitioners. Among the areas identified as problematic are the general education at the undergraduate level, the lack of individualized learning, and ineffective clinical experiences. Among the remedies suggested by the report are a liberal arts rather than a premed undergraduate curriculum, greater emphasis on individualized rather than group level instruction, and modification of the clinical approach to education. In short, the report calls for the development in medical education of those characteristics that the National Commission on Excellence in Educational Administration presumes will follow from the implementation of the professional school model, given its emphasis on clinical instruction.

Two lines of criticism are revealed in the review of the medical education literature. These criticisms culminate in identifying the same problems in the education of physicians that are expressed by those involved in the training of educational administrators. One critical theme focuses on the argument that medical education promotes theory over practice as the primary function of medicine. Light (1983, p. 459) summarizes the argument of various medical educators who have observed that "... starting with Johns Hopkins Medical School, and solidified by the Flexner report ... medical education in the United States evolved around a structure that rewards scientific expertise and research." Although Flexner (the primary developer of the medical school model) believed that the Hopkins model would promote practice, Light further argues that "... the model he chose was structured to engender increasing specialization, a near exclusive focus on the biomedical aspects of disease, and a faculty devoted to publishing research" (p. 459). As a consequence, physicians have developed a world of practice which reflects these values, resulting in "... a health care system designed to deliver and support acute intervention, treatment by specialists and hospital care" (Light, p. 459).

An interview with a recent graduate of a prominent medical school supported the contention that medical practice in general, and clinical education in particular, is seen as a process for validating the knowledge generated by medical research and theory. The respondent remarked on the tendency of clinical professors to search for unusual cases that are more likely to lead to publication opportunities, than to present typical cases to clinical students. The opportunities to present and publish the unusual is the reason that many medical school graduates apply to welfare or charity hospitals for residency since "cases there are much more likely to be interesting, unique, and severe" in comparison with private hospital cases (Orentlicher, personal communication, 1987).

The respondent also noted that, in clinics, patients were presented as models or examples, rather than human beings. Thus, clinicians and physicians tend to refer to their patients by condition (the gall-bladder in 201, the coronary in ICU) rather than by name. He also related how, in his own residence, the Dean of the medical school

had to send out a memo requesting residents to stop using the term "LMD" (local doctor) as a derogatory label for "practitioner" and refer to them instead as "personal physicians." In response to the direct question, he concluded that in his medical education, he was inculcated with the notion that the primary function of physicians is to increase the knowledge base in medicine through research and theorizing.

According to the director of a learning resource center at a state supported medical school, the explanation for the emphasis on research and theory is clear and simple. As long as medical education is rooted in university settings, faculty will pursue research and theory to attain the basic rewards of university life, funding, and tenure. She noted that the few attempts to structure a medical school curriculum based on practice and problem solving, one at Harvard, one in Canada, and the most notable attempt at Case Western Reserve (Bloom, 1979), have met with indifference on the part of the medical community. The university context appears to override the demands of the profession in determining the value structure underlying the education of physicians.

The second critical theme which emerges in the literature, undoubtedly related to the first, concerns the low level of practice exhibited by physicians not inclined to pursue theory development and research. The argument from this perspective is that physicians do not engage in reflective practice because they reject the principles of scientific analysis in their treatment of patients. Bishop (1984) cites a colleague's observation that "medical students are scientifically illiterate" and asserts further that the current products of medical education are "... physicians without inquiring minds who bring to the bedside not curiosity and a desire to understand, but a set of reflexes that allows them to earn a handsome living." (p. 92). He concludes that the problem is due mainly to the approach of medical faculty to education. He cites the need to teach critical thinking and problem solving skills, and to abandon the notion that four years of medical school will produce competent doctors.

This call for changing the basic curriculum in medical education has been echoed by Eichna (1980, 1985), who, after 35 years of practice, returned to medical school as a student and authored a document concerning the need for fundamental revision of the medical school curriculum. Among his observations are the following (1985, pp. 18-19):

1. Patient care is not presented as the primary purpose of medicine.

2. Clinical medicine has been treated as a trade learned through apprenticeship rather than the combination of biological science and clinical skill.

3. Thinking, problem solving, questioning, and self-instruction are important requirements for reflective practice. None of these is emphasized currently in the medical school curriculum.

4. Medicine can not be learned in four years. Stuffing curricula with every special interest defeats learning. An overabundance of facts overwhelms students.

5. Medical schools do not produce doctors. At best, they can impart a core of concepts, information, and skills upon which doctors base their future self-education.

In sum, there exists in medical education the same tension between research and practice, the same criticisms of the low level of reflective practice, the same call for fundamental curricular revision and the same complaint about the influence of the university on faculty attention to research and publication, that exists in educational administration. These similarities are noted to suggest that the medical school model may not produce the effects hypothesized in the National Commission on Excellence in Education Administration (1987) report. Despite the logic and coherence of the *hypothesized model*, as explicated by Schwab (1964), there is no a priori reason to expect that the *implemented model* would turn out differently in educational administration.

The crucial point which appears to defeat the attempt to produce competent practitioners in a university setting is the influence of the contextual value system on the behavior of faculty. Universities reward research with funding and scholarly publications with tenure. This contextual influence is what leads clinical faculty to use clinics as opportunities to discover presentable ad publishable clinical cases. The current condition of medical education, and the inherent value structure of medical educators, should serve to temper the expectations of those who call for a clinical faculty in educational administration as a way to enhance the practice of administrators. This point is particularly relevant, if the Commission recommendation to close many preparation programs is enacted, since those that would continue to operate would more likely be located at larger, more research oriented institutions.

However, just as it is argued that the implementation problems experienced in the training of physicians are likely to be experienced in the training of education administrators, so it can be argued that the solutions proposed by medical educators can be adopted in educational administration. Thus, Eichna's (1985) notion of changing the medical school mission to one of teaching medical students to think rather than practice and expecting the actual learning of how to be a physician to take place after medical school on the job, has implications for alternative perspectives in the training of educational administrators. The following section proposes an educational administration curriculum, based on the work of Simon (1981) and Alexander (1967), which promotes reflective practice by specifying a different relationship between theory and practice than that which occurs in the medical school model.

The Sciences of the Artificial as Curricular Structure

Two significant works, *The Sciences of the Artificial* (1981) written by Herbert Simon, and *Notes of the Synthesis of Form* (1967) by Christopher Alexander, serve as the conceptual basis for the artificial science approach to the training of educational administrators. Artifacts are person-made phenomena-physical, intellectual or

behavioral creations, as opposed to natural phenomena. According to Simon (1981), a crucial difference between natural and artificial phenomena is the enduring subservience of the former to natural law, and the contingent nature of the latter in pursuit of purpose. The contingent nature of artifacts is a consequence of the interrelationship among three variables—the purpose of the artifact, the structure of the artifact, and the setting within which the artifact operates. Simon (1981, p. 9) states that an artifact will achieve its purpose if the structure is appropriate to the environment in which it operates.

Alexander employs the metaphor of problem solving to explicate the relationship among these three elements, which he labels purpose, form, and context. The purpose is the aim or function of an artifact. The context is viewed as a problem, for it is composed of elements which make attainment of the purpose difficult. The form, constructed in response to the problematic contextual elements, is the solution. It is useful to conceive of the context as fixed, and the form as manipulable. Purposive human activity is design, where artificial factors which can be manipulated are constructed in response to prominent contextual elements which are problematic.

Alexander, in speaking of design problems, refers to the form and context as the ensemble, to emphasize that the design problem and solution must be analyzed simultaneously. Thus, the object of design is not a form, but a relationship, a fit between the form and its context. Whether or not the fit is considered explicitly in the design of a form, the success of the form in attaining its purpose is a function of the degree to which the form fits the problematic aspects of the context.

Design is most difficult when the context is least known. When the contextual field of forces is fully specified, design becomes a technical problem, one of shaping the form in response to each of the contextual elements. However, complexity increases when the context is unknown, for the nature of the problem is unclear; thus ways to improve the fitness of form and context are not evident.

The elements of a context may be obscure either because the context has not been investigated sufficiently or because the number of relevant contextual elements are too great to respond to systematically. In either case, designers respond to only a subset of the full field of forces, either due to limited knowledge or the need to simplify the problem before a solution is constructed. An effective approach to specifying the context when full description cannot be attained is theorizing, since theories "name and frame" (Schön, 1979) significant subsets of elements which constitute an empirical setting. Thus, in the process of design, theory can serve as the problem specification to which construction of form can respond.

What are the implications of the Simon/Alexander model of human behavior as design for educational administration? Administration is an artifact, the purposive pursuit of individual and/or organizational goals. The context within which administration takes place contains elements which make goal attainment difficult. Administrative practice, factors which administrators can manipulate and control, constitute the solutions to administrative problems. From Alexander's perspective, the fixed administrative context, and the manipulable administrative form, together constitute the "administrative ensemble."

What is the context of administration, that is, the source of administrative problems? It is the social context—the economic, political, organizational, sociological, and cultural aspects of the world of the administrator. What is the form of administration? It is administration practice—strategies, techniques, approaches, and behaviors. The attainment of administrative purpose will be determined by the fitness of administrative practice to the administrative context.

To the degree that the administrative context is known, the form of administrative practice is a technical problem. However, human understanding of the social context, either due to ignorance or complexity, is incomplete. Thus the specification of context, and the design of administrative practice, is more a conceptual rather than technical design issue. In the absence of full description, administrators can employ social science theory, political science, economics, organizational theory, sociology and anthropology, to construct the relevant social context. In pursuit of effective administration, social science theory can serve to define the problems for which administrative practice constitutes the solution.

Thus in an artificial science curricular approach, social science theory is cast as problem definition. The variety of forms, that is, approaches to administrative practice, are seen as solutions to problems. In this approach, the nature of the theory-practice relationship is based on the logical relationship between problem and solution in design. Theory and practice are separate but inseparable, for the administrative ensemble is the relationship between theory and practice. The role of theory is not to indicate what administrators should do, but rather to indicate what administrators must respond to in order to achieve goals. Theory serves to define problems. Thus in the artificial science model, practice is not theory based but "theory-responsive."

The different role of theory in the artificial science approach may permit this curricular model to avoid problems experienced by medical educators and those in other professional disciplines. The confusion between theory and practice, in medical education, is influenced by the fact that the primary role of theory is to provide solutions to problems—what Schwab (1964, p. 65) calls "theory of practice." When theory describes how to practice, it competes with mentoring, personal experience, and practical solutions (rules of thumb, standard operating procedures and traditions), as the basis for administrative action.

When theory is cast as solution, the theory/practice relationship is a competitive one, with the winner decided by the contextual value system. In the university setting, faculty will advance theory over practicality as the guide for administrative solutions. In the world of school administration, practicality is likely to be preferred. However, theory as problem definition avoids this confusion because, particularly for students, given their limited experiences as administrators, it is the most efficient means for learning the context. There is no competition because there is no other way to describe complexity in simplified terms, except for ignoring the context all together. The clarity of purpose, theory as problem definition, is a significant aspect of the artificial science approach to the training of educational administrators.

Finally, if theory is portrayed as problem definition, where do students learn solution? One answer to that question is provided in Eichna's observations on the

changes required in the medical school model. Eichna (1985) argues that medicine cannot be learned in four years. Medical schools cannot produce doctors; at best they can provide graduates with the critical thinking skills upon which subsequent self-education can be based.

Eichna's observations are an implicit recognition of the problem definition and solution aspects of professional practice. What universities do best for students is teach them to think, that is, teach them to identify problems embedded in the context through the teaching of social science theory. As analytical individuals, administrators will learn their own solutions to problems as they practice—on the job. Thus the most appropriate role for the university is to provide the opportunity, skills, and knowledge required to learn how to analyze problems through the assessment of context, a theoretical enterprise. Subsequent experiences, as residents or new administrators, will provide the opportunity, skills, and knowledge required to solve problems, a reflective, practical enterprise.

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Chapter
5

"Complicating" Educational Administrators

Colleen S. Bell

The aim of educational administration programs is to prepare administrators for educational organizations—organizations which face increasingly complex issues, constraints, participants, and publics. In considering the implications for preparation programs of increasing complexity in the world of educational administrators, a review of Karl Weick's notions about organizational survival and adaptation is useful (1979). In particular, Weick introduces the notion of *requisite variety*, which has to do with how systems regulate their activities in relation to their environments. The law of requisite variety states that a diverse and complicated environment demands similar diversity from its inhabitants if they are to monitor it accurately enough to survive. Weick summarizes the implication of requisite variety for organizations and their leaders:

> [O]rganizational processes that are applied to equivocal inputs must themselves be equivocal. If a simple process is applied to complicated data, then only a small portion of that data will be registered, attended to, and made unequivocal. Most of the input will remain untouched and will remain a puzzle to people concerning what is up and why they are unable to manage it. (1979, p. 198)

An overall prescription for administrators who wish to lead organizations which will adapt and survive in a complex and fluctuating environment such as that of public schools, is to develop what Weick calls "complicated" understanding. Weick puts it very simply: "No one is ever free to do something he can't think of" (1979, p. 193).

There are, of course, difficulties associated with implementing Weick's advice in educational administrator preparation programs. The multitude of demands on

administrators' time and energy suggest the most useful approach would be to increase simplicity. However, Weick argues that developing "complicated" understanding is important precisely "because the primary thrust of organizations is toward simplification, homogeneity, and crude registering of consequential events" (1979, p. 261). A second difficulty may follow from Weick's prescription: the paralysis of analysis. Presumably, a "complicated" administrator will take in more, will be sensitive to equivocalities, and will gather alternative perspectives. The availability of multiple interpretations may magnify the difficulty of settling on a single action.

Even so, the benefits of developing complicated understanding are persuasive. Bartunek, Gordon, & Weathersby (1983) have argued that when managers develop a broadened framework for understanding organizational events, in addition to the benefits of more effective managerial problem solving, there are benefits throughout the organization. These include organization members' broadened understanding of problems, greater managerial understanding of subordinates and publics, more productive use of dissent within the organization (if multiple perspectives are recognized, then disagreement can be appreciated as enhancing variety of interpretations and alternative actions), and the possibility of developing more adaptive organizational responses by drawing on multiple perceptions.

The focus in this paper emerges from the idea that educational administration programs could do a better job of preparing "complicated" administrators. To illustrate the application of Weick's notions to the preparation of educational administrators, instructional activities designed to develop "complicated" understanding of three phenomena central to the lives of administrators are discussed. These phenomena are featured in many educational administration and policy graduate programs, though are emphasized to varying degrees. The phenomena are (a) organizational careers, (b) organizational culture, and (c) bases of support for local schools.

Organizational Careers

One phenomenon to "complicate" students' ideas is organizational careers; administrative careers in particular. Given the relatively high proportion of full-time administrators among graduate students of educational administration, this might seem unnecessary; however, there are a number of ways in which thinking about administrative careers in educational organizations is oversimplified. These can be expressed as questions:

1. Are career opportunities orderly (Carlson, 1979), or are careers "eccentric predicates" (Weick, 1976)?

2. To what extent do we find confirmation of the notion that there are only a few successful administrative career paths in public schools (Gaertner, 1980), and does this idea apply similarly to male and female, and white and minority aspirants?

3. How do administrative careers differ if we adopt theoretical perspectives—in particular, psychological (Schein, 1978) and structural (Kanter, 1977)—rather than reading descriptive accounts (e.g., Wolcott, 1973; Blumberg & Blumberg, 1985)? Do psychological and structural perspectives reveal differences in men's and women's careers in school administration?

In order to complicate the thinking of graduate students about these ideas—that is, to integrate descriptive information about administrative careers with theoretical perspectives, to consider ways in which the story of the white male's career in school administration does not reflect the experiences of others, and to examine the suggestion that careers are "casual in their structure" (Weick, 1976, p. 6)—one can ask students to go beyond reading and discussing Schein (1978), Kanter (1977), Wolcott (1973), and Blumberg & Blumberg (1985).

In a course of administrative careers taught at the University of Tulsa each student focused on an administrative position to which she or he aspired, identified several people occupying such positions, and approached one or more of those individuals to request an interview. Students developed interview questions which both produced a coherent career story and were grounded in theoretical issues we were covering in class. (Guidelines for this project appear in Appendix A.)

Among the results of this assignment was the capture of a diversity of career stories which, for some of these students, began to address the silence in the literature about women as educational leaders. Further, students were able to observe ways that practicing administrators "make sense retrospectively" of their career histories, rather than seeing only orderliness or an either-or choice in an individual's career history. When students presented their career interviews and their learnings in class, members benefited from "inside views" of a variety of positions and issues which arise for people doing that work. Male students learned about the dilemmas women feel they face, and students were able to compare the experiences of administrators in several positions. The question of whether careers make people (as a structural perspective might argue) or people make careers (as a psychological theorist might assert) came alive in the career stories and students saw the possibility of a synthesis of these perspectives.

Organizational Culture

The notion of organizational culture has been addressed partially by studies of what Halpin & Croft (1962) and Howell, Howard & Brainard (1987) call "school climate." Owens (1987) defines organizational climate as focusing on "perceptions that individuals have of various aspects of the environment in the organization" (p. 168) and organizational culture as "the study of the wellsprings from which the values and characteristics of an organization arise" (p. 167). Owens sees organizational climate as "related to, and subsumed under, organizational culture inasmuch as the perceptions of individuals in the organization reflect the values and belief systems in the environment of the organization" (p. 169). Owens warns readers against

confusing the two concepts, and students who have passing familiarity with both notions do tend to find them confusing.

As a way of introducing students to organizational culture, students ought to do some observing themselves (See McCarthy & Trice, 1985-86, for a detailed account of this kind of field experience.) The introduction to the notion that organizations might be conceived of as cultures was in Chapter 5 of Morgan's *Images of Organization*, (1986). From there, students went into organizations of their choice and observed for several hours, making notes on what they saw and heard; the projects were discussed in class during the following two weeks, while people continued to observe; and, in the third week students made brief presentations of their discoveries. (See Appendix B for observation guidelines). During this span of time, students read additional sources (e.g., Burnett, 1969) and were directed in discussions and through readings to explore puzzles, inconsistencies, and contradictions in what they saw and heard, as well as to pay attention to the surface indicators of culture (e.g., rituals, language, symbols, myths).

This exercise encourages "complicated" thinking about what goes on in everyday organizational life. Instead of studying climate through reading research based on questionnaire data alone, the readings were followed by an observation assignment which provided students with some clues about things to look for and at the same time required them to get closer to the perspective of an organizational insider. They were encouraged to explore the less visible elements of an organization's context and ponder the effect of these elements on people's organizational lives. Further, emphasis on contradiction, disagreement, and inconsistency yielded data which called into question the assumption that organizational culture is a monolithic phenomenon in which all members are integrated. At the core of some cultures are debates rather than consensus; in others, subtle cues point to a contradiction which underlies an apparently uncontested image or belief. For example, dissent or fragmentation emerged in the data gathered by students who expected to find unity in the the cultures of a fundamentalist academy and a church. Coercive tactics were observed in a private college where one of the values espoused was freedom of choice. Seeing these kinds of discrepancies "complicates" the picture of organizational cultures. In addition to examining the subtleties of how culture is expressed, students noticed variation in expressions within a single organization.

Bases of Support for Public Schools

A third phenomenon which educational administration students may come to view as a relatively straightforward matter falls into the areas of local school politics, educational public relations, school-community relations, or communication theory—that is, the bases of public support for public schools and more broadly, public opinion.

When students of educational administration encounter these notions they are likely to be introduced to them either through reading the annual Gallup polls of the public's attitudes toward public schools, or by one of several texts—Saxe's *School-*

Community Relations in Transition, (1984) or West's *Educational Public Relations*, (1985), for example. Neither West nor Saxe present opinion surveys as the only method of achieving good school-community relations or good public relations; however, both emphasize the value of surveys. The focus here on attitude surveys is intended to suggest ways in which students' thinking about the promises and assumptions of survey data may be "complicated."

"Needs assessment" (Saxe, 1984) and "interactive communication" (West, 1985) are both intended to link citizens and their schools; both aim at attaining support for public schools. Surveys of public attitudes such as those conducted annually by the Gallup organization since 1969 have been identified by Saxe, West, and others as a major instrument in the effort to attain public support. But attempts to influence citizen behavior and beliefs based on the kind of information polling makes available may be misinformed. Surveys simplify important complexities in attitudinal data in at least three ways: (a) national surveys ignore powerful factors of local context, (b) simple classifications homogenize diverse populations, and (c) cross-sectional data obscure attitudinal change over time.

The introduction to this idea can be made through Gallup reports or local survey data, but it ought to point out variation of the three kinds above. For example, with regard to national surveys, it must be noted that educational preferences and politics vary from community to community. Second, Gallup and other surveys report data for categories of respondents such as "nonparent" which includes a diversity of people (e.g., young people who do not have children but plan to in the future, young professionals who plan *not* to have children, senior citizens whose children have long since completed their schooling, and middle-aged people who are childless). The surveys assume commonalities among such disparate groups. And finally, life cycle factors such as childbearing or retirement may affect people's attitudes and preferences about schooling, but rates and kinds of change over time vary among individuals. Thus, surveys of the attitudes of "yuppies," for example, provide only a snapshot view.

Ways in which understanding of public opinion about schools and education might be "complicated" have been suggested (Bell, 1987). Among these approaches to developing a more elaborate picture of citizens' educational policy preferences is the collection of "schooling histories." Class members were assigned the task of developing oral history interview questions to elicit recollections of school experiences and to provide an understanding of citizens attitudes toward aspects of public schools. An appreciation was developed for factors such as citizens' own experiences which may influence educational beliefs but are rarely tapped in explanations of public opinion. Further, an appreciation of the shifting nature of preferences over time is possible. Students may hear ambivalences expressed, or views of educational practices revised when more information is given. These expressions point out that attitudes fluctuate and evolve as a result of experience, and open to question the helpfulness of cross-sectional survey data as a basis for long-term administrative plans.

Summary

Weick advises managers to develop their resistance to tendencies of simplifying, homogenizing, and registering crudely important events; he encourages development of the capacity to perceive environments in all their complexity and from a multiple perspective. In its summary form, Weick's direction to managers is "Complicate yourself!" (1979, p. 261). Given the rate of change and the degree of uncertainty in the environment of public schools, and the relationship between "complicated" understanding and organizational adaptation and survival, there is value for educational administration programs in "complicating" administrators.

Three illustrative instructional activities have been presented in this paper. The aim has been to stimulate thinking about how we might facilitate the development of "complicated" understanding among students and practitioners of educational administration.

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Appendix A

Organizational Careers: Guidelines for Interview Project

Overview

The interview project will consist of three steps. First, students will develop a set of questions to elicit the background, experiences, and work-related beliefs of a practicing (or retired) administrator. Second, students will identify a willing individual and will conduct an interview with that person. Third, students will prepare a career-related story. Each student will have the opportunity to recount her or his project for the class.

The Paper

Interview papers will be written in two major sections—the first will describe the individual whose experiences the student is learning about, and the second section will analyze the person's experiences and views in light of the concepts studied in this course. In other words, the first part of the paper will be a portrayal of a person and the second part will be an effort to "make sense" of the interviewee's experience and perspective.

Students will address a range of questions in the analysis. For example:

1. How self-aware is the person? Does s/he recognize the conflicts and themes in her/his situation?

2. How has the individual experienced the administrative role(s) occupied? Is s/he adjusted to it? Has s/he changed her/his life to fit the demands of the role, or has the organization adapted to accommodate the individual in any way? Were there aspects of the role which came as surprises to the actor? How have personal costs related to the position affected the interviewee?

3. How have institutional structures and processes and organizational structures and processes interacted with the interviewee's work and ambitions? Has s/he encountered any organizational barriers? What is the individual's understanding of the opportunity structure, that is, how does s/he describe and explain it?

Interviewing

Students must understand that the interviewee is giving a gift when s/he talks with them. Interviews require time and energy and the willingness to think aloud about unpleasant as well as pleasant experiences. Students who keep this in mind will be more likely to have a successful conversation.

A few hints:

(1) Students should honor the interviewee, respect her/his privacy, and be prepared for the interview. Those wishing to tape record, must obtain permission first.

(2) The interviewee has the right to know how her/his comments will be used and who will have access to them. Be sure to make intentions clear. If a promise of anonymity is made, tell the interviewee how her/his identity will be protected.

(3) Don't assume to know what the person means by general statements or ambiguous terms. Ask for examples. Much can be learned by "playing dumb." This will be even more important if the interviewee is someone familiar.

(4) Keep track of experiences and views in the person's exact words whenever possible. Quotes and specific descriptions of events will help readers understand how the interviewee sees the world.

Appendix B

Organizational Culture: Guidelines for Observing

Early observations require patience and a consciously open mind. As time in a setting accumulates students will begin to develop key impressions of people, activities, situations. Record these as well as the particulars. The list of questions one might pay attention to is mammoth, but could include any of the following:

1. What are the inconsistencies in the organization? (instances in which people say one thing and do another)
2. What are the disagreements, fights, conflicts about?
3. Are there "insiders" and "outsiders?" Who are they?
4. What behaviors are rewarded? Prohibited? Are there codes of behavior?
5. How is time handled? Is it relevant for the organizational setting of interest?
6. Are there mottos, slogans, logos?
7. What kind of language clues are there? Metaphors? Imagery?
8. What about the leaders? (Formal, informal) Who is she/he?
9. What are the daily rituals, the routines?
10. What's puzzling? Are there practices or choices the student doesn't understand?
11. Are there collective activities? Rituals of celebration, mourning, encouragement, initiation? What happens right before and right after these rituals?
12. Are there posters, buttons, other artifacts which provide clues to expectations, aspirations, beliefs?
13. "When a thing is funny, search for a hidden truth." (George Bernard Shaw)

Chapter
6

Counteracting Androcentrism: Putting Women into the Curriculum in Educational Administration

Toby J. Tetenbaum and
Thomas A. Mulkeen

We live in an androcentric society; that is, one which is organized in terms of the experiences of men and which shapes reality from a male perspective. Androcentricism maintains such a strong hold on American culture that despite all the efforts of feminists, woman is still perceived by both men and women as Adam's rib—defined not in terms of herself, but in terms of her relation to men (McClelland, 1975).

Androcentrism is reflected in the development of social science theory and research which focuses on the interests and achievement of men, and which restricts research on women to stereotypic areas or to a perspective in which they are viewed only in relation to men (Bernard, 1973). Researchers are becoming increasingly aware that the funding of research, the theoretical and ideological conceptions of research, and the use of research in the social sciences are dominated by white males (Shakeshaft and Nowell, 1984).

> Conceptions of knowledge and truth that are accepted and articulated today have been shaped throughout history by the male-dominated majority culture. Drawing on their own perspectives and visions, men have

> constructed the prevailing theories, written history, and set values that have become the guiding principles for men and women alike. (Belenky, Coinchy, Goldberger, and Tarule, 1986, p. 5)

Androcentrism is also reflected in the treatment of gender in research methodologies; females are frequently omitted from the sample. Two possible explanations present themselves: (1) Attempting to Control for Extraneous Variance. In attempting to rule out alternative explanations for findings, scientific research seeks to achieve control. Restricting a sample to one sex is a technique frequently used in an attempt to reduce within group variability; and, (2) Non-availability of Subjects. With regard to management science, organizational theorists are concerned with managers and their problems, and with developing administrative theory. Since their focus is on managers and since most managers are white males, it is not surprising that they fail to pay attention to gender or that they view a universal prototypic "worker" who is male (Schwartz, 1978).

The androcentric bias in theory development stemming from the use of all male samples is readily apparent in the field of educational administration. Fiedler developed his Contingency Theory of Leadership on samples drawn from business, the military, and industry. Similarly, the Ohio State Leadership Studies used samples drawn from the military and the corporate world. Getzel and Guba's first studies on role theory, Atkinson's studies on need achievement, Kohlberg's studies on moral development, Perry's studies on cognition, and Levinson's studies on adult development all used all-male samples. In a review of articles in the *Educational Administration Quarterly* over a ten year period, Shakeshaft and Hanson (1982) found 90 percent of the samples that were described used all-male samples.

The use of all-male samples is not in itself a problem and, depending on the research demands, may even be advisable. The problem arises when the results obtained on the one sex are generalized to include the other assuming homogeneity and universalism without any discussion of the possible limitations of the research. Treating results based on one gender as universalistic creates imprecise, inaccurate, and unbalanced scholarship (Shakeshaft, 1987). Worse, when the behavior of females fails to parallel that of males and runs counter to the theory, it is usually the females who are found wanting and who are labeled as deficient. Male behavior comes to be viewed as the "norm" and female behavior as some kind of deviation from that norm (McClelland, 1975).

In summary, women have been viewed within a male framework and from a theoretical background rooted in male behavior. Shakeshaft (1987), in fact, believes "all theories in educational administration suffer from this one-sided view of the world" (p. 151). Women have not only been excluded from the samples used in studies pertaining to educational administration, their experiences as separate and distinct from those of men have largely been ignored. The female culture and the world into which they have been socialized have been completely overlooked. Thus, current theory, research, and practice in educational administration are based solely on the male experience.

But in the last twenty years, more information has been gathered about women's experiences than has ever been available before (Schuster & Van Dyne, 1984). This

paper looks at some of the recent literature in an attempt to indicate in what areas and in what ways female administrators do not fit existing theory and research in educational administration. There is no intent to consider one perspective better than the other. Rather it is to encourage us to reconceptualize theories, to reconduct and reanalyze research, to restructure training programs, and to rewrite textbooks in educational administration to take women into account.

Gender Differences in World View

Gilligan's seminal work (1977, 1982), elaborated by Lyons (1983), suggests that there are two modes of viewing the world, that these are gender related, and that they are reflected behaviorally in the ways males and females think about themselves and others, in their judgments and decisions, and in their daily functioning.

In general, males manifest a morality of rights and justice, analyzing situations logically through a filter of priorities, principles, and reciprocal rights. They maintain a separate/objective self which is based on impartiality, objectivity, and the separation of the self from others. Males assume equality in relationships and, failing that, look for fairness, distancing from others in order to allow for impartial mediation of relationships. They assume, in this reciprocal arrangement, that others are the same as the self.

In contrast, females generally manifest a morality of response and care, showing concern for others and for their well-being. The focus is on the needs of others and their welfare, not on what others might do in return or what might be dictated by a principle of fairness. Their interdependence is reflected in a connected self which assumes that relationships can best be maintained by considering and being responsive to others, and doing so in their context; that is, by understanding how the other sees his/her situation. In contrast to the male perspective, the female perspective assumes others are different from oneself.

Understanding the differences between males and females in their considerations of justice or care and in their modes of self-definition (i.e., separate/objective or connected) is critical to the discussion that follows since gender differences in administrative functioning repeatedly reflect these gender differences in world view.

Gender Differences in Perceptions and Use of Power

As Janeway (1980) notes: "The power to define guarantees that the stereotypes themselves are created by the powerful and reflect only their view of life" (p. 14). Thus, definitions of power in our culture come from males and tend to be linked to force, authority, or influence, and to indicate the control, limitation, and dominance of others. (See, for example, Pfeffer, 1981.) There are two components, then, to the male definition of power: power for oneself (i.e., the ability to influence others and to advance oneself) and power over others (i.e., the power to control and restrict others by limiting or even destroying their power).

But given the work of Gilligan and Lyons cited earlier, it is apparent that such a definition is antithetical to the female world view and, in fact, can be threatening and, therefore, even frightening to women. Miller (1982) points to three types of fear women face in confronting male-defined power, each of which jeopardizes a central part of their identity.

First, women have lived as subordinates and have been socialized to believe that to act on their own perceptions and motivations, directly and honestly, is wrong. Since their lives are guided by the need to attune themselves to the needs and desires of others, and since they are taught that their main goal in life should be to serve others, they develop the belief that the use of power in their own behalf is selfish. "Acting for oneself is made to seem like depriving others or hurting them" (Miller, 1976, p. 120). Selfishness is irreconcilable with their feminine sense of identity.

Second, the negative reaction of men to women's use of power in their own behalf is enough to make them view power as destructive, for they fear such power will inevitably disrupt an entire surrounding context. "To act out of one's own interest and motivation is experienced as the psychic equivalent of being a destructively aggressive person. This is a self-image which few women can bear" (Miller, 1982, p. 4).

Finally, since a woman's identity is bound up in a feeling that she needs others, the prospect of being powerful (i.e., of not needing) signifies a loss of a central sense of identity; a loss of the known and familiar self. In developing in the context of attachment and affiliation, the female's sense of self becomes organized around her ability to make and maintain relationships. "Threat of disruption of an affiliation is perceived as not just a loss of a relationship but as something closer to a total loss of self" (Miller, 1976, p. 83). And power, as it is defined by men, threatens just such a disruption. Thus, women's ultimate fear of power resides in the fear of abandonment, so that while women have powers and the motivation to use them, they fear that if they do, they will destroy the relationships they need for their existence.

While women prefer not to use power as men define it, for reasons discussed above, they *do* use power, but defined in a manner consistent with their traditional role as nurturers; namely, power as the empowerment of others—emotionally, psychologically, and intellectually. Women use power in the service of others, to foster their growth and to help them find their own identities. While this is not the typical view of power, it is more acceptable to women who prefer to feel they are enhancing rather than limiting the power of others.

In their work on gender differences in nPower and associated characteristics, McClelland (1975) and Winter (1973) found their results fit into traditional psychological notions of male and female roles. "It is clear . . . that women with a high power need behave differently from men with a high power need. Sex role is a key variable in determining how the power drive is expressed. It deflects the power drive into different channels" (McClelland, 1975, p. 81). McClelland observes that women's traditional role is to manage the social and emotional resources in the family, and to give more time and resources to managing interpersonal relationships. With regard to his own work, then, McClelland concludes that women manifest their nPower by building up resources so as to have more to share.

The gender differences in perceptions and use of power, like the differences in world view described earlier, need to be understood since they, too, underlie basic differences in functioning between male and female administrators.

Gender Differences in Studies of Administrative Functioning

Gender differences in world view and in perceptions of power are readily apparent in the findings of the empirical studies that have been conducted in various areas of administrative functioning. Some of these results are presented here briefly:

(1) *Decisionmaking/Leadership.* In keeping with a world view that focuses on caring, concern, and relationships (Gilligan, 1982), female administrators tend to show a collaborative approach to decisionmaking and leadership, manifesting a more democratic, participatory style than men. "In large and small schools alike, more decisions than expected were of the collegial variety under female principals, while more decisions were made by the principal alone under male principals" (Charters & Jovick, 1981, p. 322). Similarly, on the In-Basket Task, women were found to involve teachers, superiors, and outsiders more in their work, while men tended to make final decisions and to take action without involving others (Hemphill, Griffiths, & Frederiksen, 1962).

In addition, in keeping with their view of power as the empowerment of others, women tend to be less committed to the formal hierarchy and more willing to submerge their personal power in the interest of enjoining others to participate in the decisionmaking process (Neuse, 1978). They tend to rely more on such tactics as coalition building, cooperation, and the use of their own personality rather than coercive means (Fairholm & Fairholm, 1984).

Given their affiliative need and their focus on relationships and concern for others (Gilligan, 1982), women tend to establish cooperative versus competitive environments, encouraging inclusiveness versus exclusiveness (Kanter, 1977). Thus, in meetings, women use more cooperative planning strategies than do men (Berman, 1982) and tend not to dominate discussions, encouraging, instead, the participation of subordinates (Pitner, 1981).

It might seem that in sharing power women would be viewed as weak or ineffective, particularly since, in fostering cooperation, they are going against the tide in a system that stresses competition and individual achievement. On the contrary, their particular style does not appear to detract from their power. Charters & Jovick (1981) found: "Female principals were regarded as more influential with respect to the affairs of their school than male principals were and they seemed more likely than males to be dominant in the school's internal power system" (p. 322).

(2) *Conflict Resolution.* Conflict presents two opposite situations for women. On the one hand, the potential that conflict holds for disrupting relationships, a critical concern to women (Gilligan, 1982), leads them to view conflict negatively as something frightening and evil. On the other hand, as "Mother Earth," women are supposed to be "the quintessential accommodators, mediators, adapters, and soothers" (Miller, 1976, p. 125). How, then, do women deal with conflict?

Apparently, women are more likely to withdraw from conflict than men, but when they engage in resolving conflict among staff members, they are evaluated as more effective (Bendelow, 1983; Hughes & Robertson, 1980). Generally, research suggests that individuals, male or female, who use compromise and conciliation as strategies are rated as most effective, and women tend to use these strategies more often (Bendelow, 1983). Much more research is needed in the area of conflict resolution, particularly with regard to gender differences in the perception of conflict and in the strategies employed to reduce conflict.

Despite the lack of empirical research in the area of gender differences in conflict resolution, our understanding can be enhanced by reference to Gilligan's theory. Gilligan (1977, 1982) asserts that the sexes have different ways of thinking about conflict and choice. Men base their thinking on an understanding of rights and rules. They mediate through logic and laws, resolving conflict through logical deduction. Men set up a hierarchical ordering to resolve a conflict, view dilemmas in terms of mathematical equations, and follow a logic of priorities and justice. In contrast, women base their thinking on an understanding of responsibility and relationships. They mediate and resolve conflict through communication, setting up networks and strengthening connections. Whereas men attempt to resolve problems through formal and abstract means, women attempt a resolution that is contextual and bound to the particulars of time and place. Gilligan's assertions, based on her empirical work in moral decisioning, need to be tested in school settings.

(3) *Communication*. In an information age, communication will become increasingly important. Whether written or oral, communication is already a primary consumer of an administrators' time. In one study (Kmetz & Willower, 1982), elementary principals spent more than 70 percent of their time in communication of some type (e.g., correspondence, reports, meetings, telephone calls). While different amounts of time were spent on specific tasks, secondary principals were also found to spend the majority of their day in communication (Martin & Willower, 1981). Research indicates oral communication is more prevalent than written. Principals spend two-thirds of their time talking with people and seem to prefer direct to indirect contact, having four times as many face-to-face contacts as telephone contacts.

Gender differences in communication support Gilligan's assertions pertaining to women's need to maintain relationships, connections, and interdependence. Female principals have been shown to spend more time communicating with others; more time in scheduled and unscheduled meetings and more time on the telephone than male principals (Berman, 1982; Kmetz & Willower, 1982). In addition, their language reflects community building in that women express respect, appreciation, and consideration. Women talk more to subordinates than do men, supply more information and are more receptive to subordinates' ideas (Baird & Bradley, 1979). They stress interpersonal relations more, focusing on emotional and personal issues more than on impersonal facts.

Women's speech has been viewed as inferior to men's speech (Lakoff, 1975) since women tend to speak tentatively, to use qualifiers, to hedge, to avoid strong assertions, and to speak correctly using hypercorrect grammar (Kramer, 1974; Thorne & Henley, 1975). To be more effective communicators, women have been encour-

aged to develop male language patterns. But once again, the negative evaluation of women is a case of comparing female behaviors to a male model and finding them deficient. In fact, these "deficiencies" are perfectly in keeping with characteristics necessary to maintaining relationships, a central factor in women's identity (Gilligan, 1982). Pearson (1981) points out that qualifying assertions and muting argumentative intent actually facilitate discussion, enhance consensual decisioning, and help avoid conflict. In an era in which people skills are becoming increasingly important, women's communication style, which is more consensual and less authoritative than men's, may become the preferred mode. Shakeshaft (1987) suggests that "rather than urging women to forego female styles and emulate men, then, it seems that we should advise men to watch how women speak and listen and try to make those styles their own if they want to be effective school administrators" (p. 186).

(4) *Supervision.* Given women's focus on relationships, care, and concern, their traditional nurturing role, their view of power as the empowerment of others, and their muted or low-key communication style described earlier, one can almost predict the research findings pertaining to gender differences in the area of supervision.

To begin with, female administrators' style tends to follow what Williams and Willower (1983) refer to as a "Log Cabin Ethos"; that is, they try to be honest, fair, open, and equitable. To appear less threatening and less authoritarian, they often downplay their power, intellect, and skill, and try to appear more tentative (Shakeshaft, 1987). As noted earlier, they foster a collaborative, democratic, participatory, and inclusive environment.

In addition, female administrators maintain different role perceptions from male administrators which manifest themselves in different behaviors in supervision. Female administrators view their role as educational leader or master teacher, whereas male administrators view their role from a managerial-industrial perspective. Thus, Pitner (1981) found "female (superintendents) used their time to visit classrooms and teachers, keeping abreast of instructional program, while male (superintendents) used the time to walk the halls with the principals and the head custodians, requesting that they follow up on particular concerns" (p. 288). Studies indicate that female administrators interact more with teachers, conduct more observation, hold more academic discussions with teachers, and spend more time outside of school hours with teachers than do male administrators (Berman, 1982; Fauth, 1984; Gross & Trask, 1964, 1976; Pitner, 1981). Further, female principals tend to assist beginning teachers with instructional problems and direct their initial teaching experiences (Fishel & Pottaker, 1977).

The gender differences in role perceptions are manifested in differences in job satisfaction. For women superintendents "working with people was a favorite aspect of superintending" (Williams & Willower, 1983, p. 9). Thus, female superintendents gained greater satisfaction from supervising than did male superintendents (Young, 1984). Apparently, female administrators gain greater satisfaction from supervising instruction than do male administrators, while male administrators gain greater satisfaction from administrative tasks (Gross & Trask, 1964, 1967).

Women administrators' approach to supervision has several positive outcomes: The staffs of female principals are more engaged in their work, are more productive,

have higher morale, and greater job satisfaction than the staffs of male principals (Shakeshaft, 1987). Despite these positive outcomes, there is still a strong bias operating against women in upper management positions. Williams and Willower (1983), for example, report a lack of confidence in women as organizational leaders, noting that more than one-third of the superintendents surveyed in their study reported a lack of acceptance by segments of the community, staff members unaccustomed to working for a women, and male colleagues. The sex structuring of schools in America has resulted in an organization in which males typically supervise females. It has become the "natural" order of things. For a female to supervise a male, then, is "unnatural." One of the manifestations of this is that male teachers exhibit greater hostility in dealing with female administrators than do female teachers (Shakeshaft, 1987). Supervision and leadership by females will continue to be problematic as long as the gender imbalance continues to exist in education.

Conclusion

Although women appear to be making inroads into the national labor force and into nontraditional professions, similar gains have not been attained by women in the field of education. On the contrary. Whereas 83% of elementary school teachers and 47% of secondary school teachers are women, only 12% of all principals are women (Fauth, 1984). And according to the latest AASA survey (1985), of the more than 14,500 public school districts in the United States, only 2.4 percent are led by female superintendents. In addition, where women are superintendents, it tends to be in small districts, and where women are principals, it is usually in elementary schools (Burstyn, 1980). If anything, the percent of women in educational administration has decreased since the 1920s (Marshall, 1984) with women becoming "invisible as leaders of our public schools" (Schmuck, 1980, p. 240).

Several writers have attempted to identify the barriers that hinder women's movement into school administration. (See, for example, Biklen and Brannigan, 1980; Estler, 1975; Marshall, 1986; Metzger, 1985; Schmuck, 1980; Shakeshaft, 1985, 1987.) Internal barriers include such beliefs and attitudes as poor self-image or lack of self-confidence, lack of aspirations or motivation, and lack of characteristics identified with leadership positions. External barriers include socialization and sex role stereotypes, lack of preparation or experience, lack of finance for training, too few role models, lack of sponsorship or mentors, lack of a network, lack of support and counseling, family and home responsibilities, and sex discrimination in hiring and promotion. These barriers go a long way toward explaining why there are so few women in educational administration and why, when they do make it, it takes women an average of 15 years in teaching to ascend to administrative positions compared to 6.4 years for men (Fauth, 1984).

One of the most critical barriers to women entering the field of educational administration and one which is within the province of educational administration programs to remove is that of sexism in the curriculum. This paper has attempted to indicate some of the recent theory and research which needs to be included in the

curriculum in educational administration to redress the gender imbalance and androcentric bias which currently exists. Shakeshaft (1987) suggests that existing programs which have been designed largely by men for men are not suitable for women because "their sexist content makes the environment uninviting for women (and) the knowledge base taught presents much information that only works for men, and women who can pass as men" (p. 131).

A gender balanced curriculum and program can lead to better understandings of women *and* men, thereby liberating *both* genders and increasing organizational effectiveness. Feminist scholars in the social sciences are beginning to challenge the presumed universality of the theories, methodologies, and assumptions of their various disciplines. Theorists and researchers in educational administration need to join them. Removing androcentrism from the curriculum will not be easy. Despite the fact that schools of education have the highest percentage of women students, they tend to be among the most resistant to women's studies, gender issues, and gender equity concerns (Sadker & Sadker, 1982). Compounding the difficulty will be the fact that what we are learning about women—about their perceptions, motives, behavioral styles—is considerably different from what we know about men. This will call for a radical restructuring of the male paradigm and far more complex organizational theories. But as more women move into administrative positions, the question will be: Is the field of educational administration ready for the twenty-first century?

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